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ART. I.—THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS, AND THE INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO,

PRINCE OF WALES ISLAND—MALACCA—SINGAPORE—CULTIVATION
OF RICE IN INDIA, &c.

[CONCLUDED.]

THE Malays, during the intervals alluded to, often turn woodcutters in the forest, and float down the rivers large rafts of lumber and timber for house and boat building, and spars for vessels. The spars average sixty feet in length, and twelve feet in girth. The junks come down from China with old masts, which they exchange for new ones, selling them in China at a handsome profit of three to four hundred per cent. The cutting and preparing of Attaps, for thatching houses, and Kajangs, (mats,) for affording temporary shelter to the crews of boats, yield employment to numbers. Dammer, (resin,) Dammer-oil, (liquid resin,) rattans, and dragon's blood, are sought after in the jungle at the imminent risk often of tigers.

While the able-bodied members of a family are thus variously engaged, the women arrange domestic affairs at home, being assisted by the old men and children. Independently of the employments adverted to, the Malays engage in petty traffic along the coast, or proceed far up in the interior to barter goods with the wilder tribes called Orang Benua, (Children of the Soil,) the aborigines of the Malayan Peninsula. Boat building is a favorite employment with the men who stop at home. Some of these boats are beautiful models; but as they have no keel, and rather sharp bows, they are only fitted to sail with the wind dead aft. These crafts are made from suitably-sized trunks, which are opened by fire. The trunk forms the body of the boat, and planks are nailed on to make the gunwale.

The prolonged absence of heads of families exposes the females to temptations which their education and premature marriages perhaps do not fit them to resist. Chastity is, however, a more common virtue than, under such a condition of society, might have been expected. One of the reasons undoubtedly is, that, although perhaps as jealous as any Indian husband can be, the Malay does not immure his wife,

or deny her the privilege of going abroad, and holding conversation with the male sex. But if thus tolerant, he feels, nevertheless, in a keener degree the abuse of his indulgence; and frequently, when a Malay becomes "a victim to misplaced confidence," he resents the insult by homicide. The respectable Malay is highly sensitive to trivial and even unpremeditated insult; such, for instance, as brushing by one, and turning round, is considered by Malays as a gross injury. He fancies that *no law* can compensate for the injury his honor has sustained. His feelings are, therefore, apt to lead him, not merely to criminal, but absurdly-ridiculous excesses. Thus, it has sometimes happened, that a Malayan couple, having been formally divorced by mutual consent, confirmed by order of the Tuan Kaley, or native ecclesiastical judge, and the woman having married another man, the first husband has murdered both parties. In such case, it is probable that suspicions of her former infidelity were confirmed. Under Malayan rule, murder, unless coupled with treason, has its expiatory price, and can, without much danger, be perpetrated with impunity by a rich man.

Ere dismissing the subject of rice cultivation, I would remark, that in Java there are three different modes of planting rice. Sawah is the name given to rice fields which can be artificially irrigated. Tipar, or Tagal, are elevated, but level grounds; and Gagah, or Lading, are cleared forest lands. The two last only yield one crop a year. A second crop may be obtained from the Sawah, which then most commonly consists of Katchang, or pea-nuts, from which an oil is extracted; in Kapas, or fine cotton, or in Ubie, a kind of potatoe. TEMMINCK (*Coup d'œil Général sur les Possessions Néerlandaises dans l'Inde Archipélagique*, an invaluable work) states that the exportation of rice from the island of Java in 1840, amounted to 136,626,250 pounds. In 1848, owing to the failure of the Java rice crop, it proved profitable to import rice from Arracan into Batavia and Sourabaya.

The Malays of the Straits and Peninsula are all followers of the Arabian Prophet. They are of the Soonnie, or orthodox sect, holding to their faith with tenacity—more, perhaps, the result of habit and education than of spiritual conviction. There is not one single instance on record of a Malay Mohammedan having been christianized; though in the northern part of the Peninsula, some of them have relapsed into their former faith of Boodhism. They accept, readily, Malayan versions of the Bible, (Dutch translation,) considering it a very instructive book, but spoiled by Nazarene interpolations. The Koran among them superseding all former written revelation, portions of the Bible to them are only valuable as showing what were the Almighty's laws prior to Mohammed's mission upon earth. Divested as their minds are of the severe and repulsive bigotry which characterizes the Moslems of continental India, and, indeed, of most countries in Asia west of Hindostan, the Malays are better fitted than are their co-religionists to mingle in commercial and social intercourse with people of different persuasions. Malays of education have often told me, that the professors of other creeds than theirs are not, in the life hereafter, thrust completely beyond

the pale of salvation, although none but good Mohammedans will ever be introduced to the celestial Houris; observing, that a man cannot sin, save when he disobeys the injunctions of his own particular faith. They believe, however, in the ascent of Mohammed on a dromedary, with a peacock's feather in its tail, as firmly as Christians in the miracles of the Old Testament.

To the credit of Malayan Mohammedans it must be admitted, that they are rarely, if ever, seen under the debasing effects of ardent spirits, and very seldom, indeed, of opium; although, in the Indian Archipelago, a man can get serenely drunk for an outlay of about five cents.

The Mohammedans from continental India, being She-ites, or followers of Ali, are looked upon by the Malays with disgust, fully equal to that which they entertain for Chinese and Hindoo worshippers. The She-ites have annual processions, notwithstanding, in the Straits Settlements, in commemoration of the deaths of Hassan and Hossein. During these days of mourning, they are in the habit of performing various acts of penance, such as being buried up to the chin in the ground for twenty-four hours. These devotees paint their faces white, and with fowl's blood make a red streak round the small portion of the neck that appears above the surface of the earth. This is done in memory of the decapitation of the two brothers. To the stranger, at first they look as if they had been beheaded, and their heads stuck on end on the ground, and it is only by a close approach that they attest their vitality by their goggling eyes. Another of their penances consists in sticking their wire skewers through the flesh, somewhat after the subjoined manner: From wrist to wrist, one, and another through each arm and cheek; whilst a fourth perforates the chin, tongue, and nose. Thus trussed up, the penitent stalks about, affording much edification to the spectators, and, no doubt, vast consolation to himself. In one case I saw in Singapore, where a young man was having this ornament arranged upon his person, no blood flowed from any of the punctures while they were being made,—perhaps on account of the skin being taken up by the fingers, and pinched very hard before the wires were thrust through.

Of all nations the Chinese keep the greatest number of holidays; and their prodigality, on such occasions, also far exceeds, in proportion to their pecuniary means, that of other people. The Chang-wa, or first day of the Peang-shin, or New Year, is a day of much rejoicing. At early dawn the Chinese open their doors, and let off large bundles of Pangp'hao, (crackers,) some of which are so large as to sound at a distance like musketry. They then go a round of visits to their friends, congratulate them on having reached another year in health, and wish them future prosperity. These visits occupy three days. The visitor does not give presents. He is entertained with sweetmeats and the delicacies of the season. These three days compose a species of carnival, when gaming, carousing, histrionic and other amusements, are the sole occupations of the people. The feasts are expensive, and the table groans with whole pigs and poultry, both roasted and boiled. The potations consist of Samsoo, a spirit ex-

tracted from rice, brandy, and other European liquors. The Chinese pledge each other in the European fashion, and the conversation is very animated. They rarely get drunk, and seem capable of carrying off as goodly a quantum of strong drink as any bon-vivant in our country.

On the 10th day of the first Chinese month the image of S'sayin-kong, a deified saint, is carried in procession from the house of the elder of the tribe, with whom it had remained during the past year, to the Kwan-yin-mean, or temple. Bands, to refined ears, of discordant and harsh music, accompany the effigy. Banners of red cloth, and huge lanterns painted with flowers, are carried in advance; whilst two umbrellas, striped red and yellow, with deep fringes, are held over the effigy. Cloth flags are likewise displayed, emblazoned with devices, amongst which is the horned alligator. When the effigy of Tokong has been deposited in the temple, another of Kwanteya, a deified mortal, is also conveyed thither with the same ceremonies.

On the 15th of this month, the household guardian spirits are honored by offerings of food and fruits. The animal propensities of the Chinese are strongly exemplified in the nature of their offerings, and their fanciful belief that spirits carry their grosser passions and capabilities for indulgence along with them to Sizzha, the Chinese hades. These household gods are portrayed by pictures or images; the latter are always the most conspicuous part of the house. The ceremonies conclude with the exhibition of painted lanterns, fire-works, and the invariable feast of good things; for in this particular the Chinaman is a counterpart of John Bull, and wisely considers that no affair can be successful without a dinner preceding or following it.

The temples on the night succeeding the above day, are thronged with persons of all ages, and both sexes: for the Chinese in the Straits Settlements do not immure their women. Pai or Poee are external acts of adoration, performed before the images in the temples. These are generally repeated four times consecutively. In the first, the worshiper falls on his knees, and placing his hands flat on the ground, he touches the latter with his forehead. On the presentation of an offering of variously-colored tapers and huge red waxen candles and incense, the adorer entwines his fingers, then keeping the palm uppermost and open, he raises his hands, so joined, to his forehead, placing his elbows so as to perform the part of a segment of a circle. The priest, who is clothed in a flowing dress of red, black, white or flowered cotton cloth, continues during the time to recite passages from the Bali language, which are not a little changed by the Chinese pronunciation. A large gong is loudly struck at intervals, to call the attention of the Deity to what is wanted of him. Those Chinese who can afford it, and are strict followers of ancient usages, have portraits painted of their nearest relations. When any one of the latter happens to die, his or her picture is carefully locked up in the picture chest, where are also deposited the ancestral portraits. On New Year's Day the whole of these pictures are taken out of the chest, and hung along the walls for some days, while daily

offerings are presented them of food, which, after remaining a short time on the table before the pictures, are consumed by the living members of the family.

On the 19th day of the second month, there is a procession with the image of Kwan-yin-nes, a celebrated spinster of old; and in honor of this her birthday, offerings are made to her of vegetables and sweetmeats, but no animal food, as she "couldn't abide it" when alive. In this month, also, the Chinese visit the tombs of their ancestors, a duty which by all classes is felt to be so imperative, that, to fulfill it, opulent Chinamen have been known to return to China from the Straits and Eastern Archipelago, at the risk of life and property, on account of the Mandarins "squeeze" processes. Slips of paper, having a patch of gold or silver leaf on them, are burned. They are intended to represent money, and in this instance they seem to have got the start of Europeans, whose notes are, it is to be apprehended, not cashable in Pluto's dominions even at a discount. This paper, which is not worth a cent in this present world, is intended to furnish the manes who are wandering in the Chinese hades with ample means for their subsistence. The Chinese believe that in the Yong-chaoo-Yase, or country of souls, gold and silver coin can be converted from this paper money back to its proper nature.

On the 23d of the 3d month, the Chinese propitiate and worship Ma-choo, a female divinity and protectress of sailors. Offerings of food are made to her, and expensive theatricals are exhibited, accompanied by excellent fireworks. The theatrical exhibitions are there made under a temporary house, which is open to the populace in front; who, as they pay nothing at the time for the amusement, are not supplied with any shelter from the weather. The women with their children sit in groups and circles, or in palanquins, and the men crowd about the space in front of the stage. One of the best of their fireworks is a box from two to three or four feet square. Within this are tiers of fireworks of almost every description. At the expiration of each tier, or small platform, a frame drops about a foot below the box, on which are exhibited in fire, puppets of men, animals, and Chinese characters, traced in flame.

On the 8th day of the 4th month, the Chinese hold a festival in honor of Foot-so or Bood'dha, in one of his incarnations. His image is carried in procession, and taken amongst the grain and other cultivations, to preserve such from insects and disease, for Bood'dha's distinctive attribute is humanity. The oblations are tea, wine and bread—nothing which had life is offered.

Quan-yin-nyeow, a female goddess, is worshiped on the 19th day of this month. The women are numerous at the celebration of this goddess's natal day, and the processions on this occasion are very lively, whilst the display of palanquin carriages adds to the gayness of the scene. The male worshipers of this beautiful spirit, when their veneration is sincere, wear round, flattish and slightly conical caps, made of rattans and other similar materials, with long flowing crests of horse-hair dyed red. The dress for the body is a long robe, the same as the ceremonial one. The deputation of Chinese residents that met Lord Dalhousie, present Governor-General of India, on his

arrival at Singapore, in the early part of 1850, wore this style of dress when they waited on his lordship to offer their congratulations.

In the seventh month, the Chief of the Spirits, Toa-so, is adored. He is usually represented by a figure of about 20 feet in height. It is constructed of split bamboos; the whole is then covered with painted paper, so as to represent the human body, and then dressed as one would a gigantic doll. As night approaches, a table is set out for 30 or 40 persons, and viands and liquors are thereon laid for the use of Toa-so. Whole boiled pigs form a grand centre dish. When the ghostly guest has, it is supposed, satisfied his appetite from the contemplation of the luxuries displayed, a gong is sounded, and all the beggars of the place have a scramble for everything that may have been placed on the table, down to the plates and spoons sometimes. One night's entertainment for his saintship will often cost from two to three hundred dollars. The expenses attending this festival, and indeed of all the others, are disbursed out of their different religious funds, some of which are rich, being readily supported by voluntary contributions: for as these festivals resemble carnivals or saturnalia, the poorest Chinaman grudges not his mite, but looks forward to them as days of unfettered recreation and enjoyment. When sufficient honors have been paid to Toa-so, a chest made of paper is filled with articles of dress, also made of the same material, and a lighted match is applied to His Holiness and baggage, so that he may return to his celestial abode.

Tza-woa is the name of the 10th month, the third day of which is sacred to the memory of the great and good Cong-foot-zoo, our Confucius. All, pretending to learning, keep a picture of the sage in their house, and on the day in question present food and other offerings to it.

In an old dilapidated temple in the island of Pinang, which was made by a partly closing up of the entrance to a cave, formed by overhanging granite rocks, were sometime to be seen three painted wooden images. In the centre one was represented Tho-tee-Pakong, who was a famous sage of old. He is now invoked by Chinese grain cultivators, and those who are obliged to reside temporarily in forests and wild places. He wears a flat bonnet, and is dressed in the Chinese costume. On his left sits the recording spirit, and on his right the avenger.

ART. II.—SOUTHERN WINES AND VINEYARDS.

[No persons have done more for our country in the vine business than Mr. Longworth, of Cincinnati, and Mr. Weller, of North Carolina, the author of the present paper, which he kindly furnishes us. We shall have a great deal to say of Mr. Longworth in our next, and of his admirable vineyards, the most extensive in America.]—Ed.

For upwards of twenty years the writer has experimented in the vineyard business and in making the best American wines, or wines accounted by the best judges, and by his patrons in various parts of the Union, better than European.

His vineyard of ten acres, and vineyard products, (fifty and sixty barrels annually,) are the largest now in the South, and are rapidly on the increase. His wines, according to quality and cost and trouble of making, command in market from one to six dollars per gallon, with twenty per cent. off by the cask; and at the same rate per bottle also, after adding cost of bottles, sealing, wiring, and labeling. Here the writer appends what he deems the most important hints to all American vintners; and states that, with the exception of a few gallons of wine occasionally made with shriveled or over mature grapes, by way of experiment, and no ingredient whatever added to the juice, (experiment convinces him that in the *South*, at least, it is utterly impracticable thus to make wine as a profitable or desirable business,) he makes some of his best kinds of wines, as Madeira, Port, &c., by adding plenty of spirits, or sugar, or both, according to the wines intended as the result. For instance, as a third of spirits is put into the juice for making the best Eastern wines, (medicinally and otherwise) are reaching our shores, so, for some of his, is added a like quantity of spirits, as advised by Mr. Longworth, our greatest Western vintner, in his Patent-Office letter of 1847. True it is, according to recent statements, that some wines are made in the Western vineyards, under Mr. Longworth's auspices, without any safe-keeping, enriching ingredients whatever added to the juice of the grape. But it is also true, by accompanying accounts, that such wines, like those made thus in France and other Eastern vineyards, are of a lower price, indicating so far as that is concerned an inferior quality; or, as we have reason to believe, more body and zest by said artificial ingredients being added, a higher price is commanded, when the merits are known, as for Madeira and Port. For instance, while the best Malaga sells at a dollar a gallon in this country, the best Madeira and Port, of one-third spirits, or of the strongest body by artificial help, sell for several dollars per gallon. Why not, then, do American vintners, and especially Southern ones, take this fact as a most significant hint for their operations in their wine-making business? But it is alleged by some, that wines made by artificial help to the grape juice are therefore less pure. And pray, what more pure things are there in physical nature than sugar and spirits, or say, saccharine and alcoholic principles? These principles enter into almost all vegetable creation as the pure, grand preservative ingredients. For instance, every grain of corn or wheat has more or less alcohol therein for its pure preservative, as developed by distillation. And since two of the chief constituent principles of all wine, (the definition of wine the world over being the "fermented juice of the grape," and therefore always alcoholic by fermentation, and as such, capable of intoxicating effect if intemperately used or abused, as set forth in the Bible,) being saccharine and alcoholic, is it not chemically absurd to allege that the same ingredients increased artificially, to add body, safe-keeping and strength, render the wine thus made impure? As if more of the purest ingredients of wine added artificially made any wine more impure! or, as if mere additions of constituent pure things, added to any things necessarily, or in any way, change the

nature of such things for the *worse* ! and as if adding spirits to foreign wines, so far from making them worse, made them better medicinally and otherwise, and adding the same ingredient to American wines made them worse !

Let the candid, with these suggestions before them, judge impartially for themselves, and not be imposed on by the absurd position of interested salesmen and others, as to foreign wines, in order to ruin or greatly injure the vineyard business, in the South at least, of our country.

For, it is a fact, and tested as such by long experience of others as well as the writer, that the Scuppernong grape, which outyields any grape in the world, as to fruit and juice, (as one vine covering a quarter acre yields five barrels of wine annually,) is so deficient in *quantity*, (I say *quantity*, for the *quality* is most excellent,) of saccharine and alcoholic principles, that without artificial help, by some ingredients, the wine will not keep, or be of any superior quality ere spoiling; and there is no help for this difficulty to any practical purpose by suffering the grapes to become extra ripe, or shriveled on the vines; for whenever ripe, most of the berries fall off by the first wind or storm of any violence; and so deficient is the juice of the quantity of necessary wine ingredients, at the common ripeness of the grapes, that the juice is comparatively *insipid*, as tried by hundreds of the writer's guests tasting it, as running from the presses in vintage seasons. But by adding a sufficiency of double-refined loaf sugar, as an ingredient most congenial to its own exquisite taste in quality, it makes a *most delightful beverage*. And strange as the fact may appear to some mere theorists, the very Scuppernong grapes of the same degree of ripeness as those affording the comparatively weak or deficient quantity and quality for beverage or wine, are the *most delightful fruit*, and are preferred by a vast majority of the writer's guests or visitors in vintage time, to any of about two hundred other kinds in his vineyard, including the Catawba, Isabella, and other most favorite natives in our country, both North and South.

I am most credibly informed that a Spaniard, of reputation as a European vintner, experimented pretty largely on Scuppernong Island, (originating the name of this grape,) as to the qualities of the Scuppernong grape for wine, and that he pronounced it unfit or deficient in quantity and quality of juice to make wine without artificial help; or rather, I would say, in his *ignorance* and *prejudice*, he *condemned* the grape for wine making. He as inconsistently pronounced such condemnation as if he had for like reasons condemned the grapes of the *Madeira Island*, or those of Oporto, because one-third of spirits was necessary to develope those grapes into their most excellent wine qualities.

As to spirits for the safe keeping and duly enriching ingredients to Scuppernong juice, from ample experience and most reliable information, I consider a fourth the *least safe* quantity, or one gallon to three of juice; and as to sugar, two pounds per gallon of juice; though a third of spirits and three pounds of sugar is safer and better every way.

Some years since, traveling through Franklin county, (N. C.) I called at a celebrated Scuppernong vineyard, and found by tasting and information, that of about 17 barrels of Scuppernong wine made the past vintage, every one of them had a taste slightly acid. And on inquiring I found that, owing to a deficiency of brandy on hand, one-fifth only had been added in making the wine. True; in such cases the wine may be recovered by adding more brandy, or some sugar, or both. But it is also true that the wine is not quite as good in such cases, as if the requisite or safe quantity had been added at first.

Some ten years since I was written to from Columbia, South Carolina, by a Frenchman, that if I had any partly spoiled or acid wine, he would come and change it to good for a proper compensation. I declined the proffer, having no confidence in the foreigner.

Months after I learned, from a most respectable gentleman from the place, that the *bad wine* the Frenchman made apparently *good*, had changed to become worse than before, in a few weeks. I concluded some impure or deleterious ingredient of an evanescent effect had been used. I concluded also I could beat the Frenchman by making a permanent change through pure ingredients added: and into some wine then on hand I put sugar and spirits, as much as needed to recover it, and the result was even beyond expectation. It has been alleged (from a source, however, of no reliance) that grapes in the far South more abound in saccharine and alcoholic properties, and therefore the juice less needs artificial help to make wine. But even if that is a fact, another fact is, that the further south the warmer the weather is in vintage time, saying nothing of the less chance of deep cellars to help to prevent the wine running into the acetous fermentation. In the North, or Ohio, not only the Catawba will stick on the cluster till fully or extra ripe, but colder weather and the advantage of deep cellars are enjoyed. But I opine, no matter how cold the climate, or how deep the cellars, that the Scuppernong juice, if enjoying these advantages, would not keep without *artificial* help.

Herbemont's Madeira grapes in Columbia, South Carolina, hang on the vines, if escaping the rot, as long as desired after being ripe; but with one pound of sugar per gallon, more than half the wine is apt to spoil by souring, (or, as I aver, by deficiency of safe-keeping ingredients,) as set forth from Mr. Guinard, in Mr. Longworth's Patent-Office letter of 1847. Now I fearlessly assert, that from my experience with this very grape in wine making, *three* pounds of sugar instead of *one* put into its *juice*, or *one-third* spirits, and the same pains being taken as by Mr. Guinard, would make a very good and far better wine than that made with the use of the *meagre one pound* of sugar per gallon. And when it is remembered that the spirit adds its own bulk, and the sugar half thereof, to the quantity or volume of the wine, the argument is greatly enforced against *stinginess* of safe-keeping, enriching ingredients, in making Scuppernong wine. And I I may say the same of the making of any American wine from any kind of grape.

Wishing to gain the best intelligence in our country on wine-making, besides reading the treatises extant thereon, I have received by solicitation and otherwise numerous receipts from the lower part of our state, for making the best Scuppernong wine. And it is remarkable, that not one correspondent from the region and origin of this most famous American grape, gives any process for making this wine without either sugar or spirits added; though most of them differ as to the quantity necessary, of either or both, to make and safely keep the wine. But as to the most exquisite taste of the Scuppernong wine, double-refined sugar, doubtless, is best to secure that, because coming nearest to the most delightful taste of the Scuppernong grape.

The highest praise of any wine is, that its zest is like that of the grapes of which it is made.

A most eminent vintner from Germany first suggested the double-refined sugar for making the most excellent Scuppernong wine. And as soon as I tried it, I found he was right, or chemically correct.

I must here relate a fact, at the danger of appearing vain to some, viz: I was written to, from the lower part of our state, to come down, (about eighty miles,) and instruct how to make the highly reputed best Scuppernong wines; and was offered \$4 a day from starting to returning. And I here append the result of my mission, as follows, viz:

The mashing machine, woolen blankets to strain with, and sugars and spirits being all ready as directed by letter, I made, as samples, a barrel of each of the following kinds of Scuppernong wine, or cordial, viz:

1. Scuppernong, (proper, or no appellative name,) at \$1 per gallon; made with one-third brandy.

2. Scuppernong champagne, at \$2 per gallon; made with one-fourth brandy, and one pound of double-refined sugar per gallon.

3. Scuppernong Madeira, (a white or colorless wine,) at \$3 per gallon; made with three pounds per gallon of double-refined sugar.

4. Scuppernong hock (of a beautiful red color, by fermenting one bushel of purple Scuppernong with seven of the white,) at \$4 per gallon; made with three pounds of double-refined sugar per gallon, and peculiar pains in racking, &c.

5. Scuppernong perfect love cordial, \$10 per gallon; made with one-third brandy, and two pounds of double-refined sugar per gallon.

I append here a kind which I make at my premises, and not convenient to make there, because of the very short time I had to stay on account of the need of my presence at my own vintage, viz:

6. Purest Scuppernong, \$6 per gallon. One variety of this kind is made with a third of Scuppernong brandy, and another with Scuppernong syrup.

The brandy is from distillation of Scuppernong juice soured. And the syrup is from the sweet juice reduced by boiling. Twenty per cent. or more off the price per gallon when sold by barrel or cask.

A most respectable lawyer, Joseph S. Cannon, Esq., of Hertford, Perquimans county, wrote to me, and I operated in wine-making with his brother, Mr. James J. Cannon, upper part of Chowan county, near the river of that name, (Post-Office, "Ballard's Bridge.") I add here, that Mr. Cannon bought in most of his grapes, or about 100 bushels, ere I left, and expected 100 more, engaged to complete his vintage.

A number of small Scuppernong vineyards are scattered through different regions of the lower part of North Carolina. The owners sell a part of their grapes, and a part they convert into wine. Cart-loads of grapes, I learn, were carried from Mr. Cannon's neighborhood to Norfolk, (60 miles distant,) and some, bought there, were shipped to Baltimore, and elsewhere. So great is the quantity sold at Norfolk, from the adjoining country, that often there are 30 cart-loads a day there, I was told, in vintage time. So much appreciated is this grape for table fruit, preserving and kindred purposes, that all taken found a ready market. I sell quantities sent for to my vineyard, from various distances, at 50 cents to 30 cents per gallon, according to time of the vintage, or pains in gathering, and quantity taken at a time; but the price at Norfolk, I learned, was much lower—or sometimes two dollars a bushel. And so esteemed are the Scuppernong grapes here, that for the time of ripening, or about two months, the berries ripening in succession, most guests pay an entrance fee into the vineyard of a quarter of a dollar each, and on picnic days, sometimes a hundred at a time, prefer this to all other grapes. A gentleman near Warrenton, 20 miles west, from a small Scuppernong vineyard, made, clear, last vintage, a hundred dollars, by selling grapes in that town. Seeing, then, the superior excellence of this grape in every way (except in *quantity*, not *quality*, of *saccharine* and *alcoholic properties*,) it is no marvel that its culture is rapidly extending over all the South,—hundreds of the rooted vines annually sell at from 20 to 25 dollars per hundred. I distribute them to distant places South, from my nursery, and good Scuppernong wine is increasing in reputation and circulation every year. And as to Southern and Western vineyards: "*Ephraim* need not envy *Judah*, nor *Judah Ephraim*." But let all work on harmoniously, to free our country from so many annual *millions of foreign dependence* for wines, *not so good as may be made in our midst by intelligence and skill*. Throughout the *South*, by putting one-third *spirits* to *any sort of grape-juice*, (but especially the *Scuppernong*, according to Mr. Longworth's advice,) an excellent wine may be made, worth a dollar a gallon. And, in the West, or North, by the same help, or even without any *artificial aid* to the juice, in *some cases*, or with *some kinds of grapes*, a wine may be made of equal excellence and value. And as to any wines superior, or of higher price, because of more cost and trouble, why that is a matter of taste and choice.

BRINKLEYVILLE, HALIFAX COUNTY, N. CAROLINA,
December 24th, 1851.

ART. III.—PENNSYLVANIA.*

ITS EARLY HISTORY, AND PROGRESS IN POPULATION, COMMERCE, TRADE,
MANUFACTURES, AGRICULTURE, EDUCATION, &c.

In previous numbers of the Review our sketches of the states of the Union have been confined to those of the South and West. We now turn to the North, with the design of continuing these sketches, until we have passed over the entire Union of thirty-one states. We commence with Pennsylvania, as being the first great state that presents itself on crossing the line of Mason and Dixon, the artificial boundary which separates the northern from the southern states.

Pennsylvania is the only state in the Union which bears, and transmits to future ages, the name of a private individual. It is known that the natural modesty of William Penn earnestly declined the honor of having his name latinized into that of a great American province; but Charles II., of England, insisted upon Pennsylvania, as being the most beautiful and appropriate name that could then be devised. It must be admitted, however, that the territory in question has now lost much of the sylvan character that it must have possessed in the days of Charles II. However great Penn's obligations may have been to the "merry monarch," for the honor conveyed in the name Pennsylvania, it is quite certain, that the soil of the territory ceded to Penn, by Charles II., was far from being a gift.

William Penn inherited from his father, Admiral Penn, who acquired some distinction as commander of the English fleet at the conquest of Jamaica, and in the subsequent war with the Dutch, a large fortune, to which he added remarkable abilities, both natural and acquired. His education, however, was somewhat irregular, owing to circumstances resulting from his stubborn inflexibility of purpose in all things, and particularly in regard to his religious principles. While a student at Oxford he imbibed the principles of the Quakers, and he is said to have been expelled from the University "because he would persist in pulling from the backs of his fellow students those popish and unnecessary badges, their gowns."

Among other things which Penn inherited from his father—and this was, in the end, his greatest inheritance—was a claim against the government, of £16,000, of which the Admiral had been plundered at the shutting up of the Exchequer. This claim, for which there was little hope of ever getting anything, (as Charles II. was notoriously extravagant, profligate, always in want of money, and, like all such men and monarchs, slow in paying debts,) was the real cause of Penn's coming to America, though the reiterated persecutions and imprisonments to which his peculiar religious notions exposed him,

*The series which we have been publishing of the states of the Union, already includes Massachusetts, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, Alabama, Florida, Texas, Mississippi, Louisiana, Kentucky, Missouri, etc. We shall continue with the others, and when the census of 1850 is published, incorporate its material under the appropriate heads.

may have had some influence. Penn, as a last chance of getting anything for his claim, proposed to accept a grant of American territory, which was at that time very abundant, and not particularly valuable. To obtain, however, even such a liquidation of the claim as this, required some tact and exertion.

Penn was fortunate in having the support of the Duke of York, who had always been the particular friend of the late Admiral, his father, and who was always an admirer of the principles of non-resistance, though not the quakerism, of the son. William Penn himself, though mild, gentle, and anti-bellicose, was far from unskilful, as his biographers tell us, in the arts of a courtier, which he practiced, in the present case, with double energy and effect in his guise of drab-colored Quaker plainness. After the usual vexations and delays of all suitors for government favor or justice, he finally succeeded, and on the 4th of March, 1681, in the thirty-seventh year of his age, was constituted, by a royal charter, "sovereign of a great American province called Pennsylvania." The charter created him "true and absolute lord" of Pennsylvania, with property in the soil, and ample powers of government, with the exception, that "the advice and consent of the freemen of the province" were necessary to the enactment of laws. There were also some other exceptions which were common to all, or to the most of the other provinces.

At the time of Penn's receiving his charter there were already within the limits of Pennsylvania quite a number of settlements. At the mouth of the Schuylkill dwelt a large number of Swedes and Dutch, and the English had settled along the west bank of the Delaware, under grants from the Governors of New-York.

Pennsylvania was colonized by the Swedes nearly forty years before William Penn received his grant of the territory from Charles II. As early as 1643, the Swedes had erected a fort on the island of Tinicum, in the Delaware river, a few miles below Philadelphia; and this island also was chosen by their governor, John Printz, as the place of his residence. The first Swedish settlement in America was that formed by the colony sent out by Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, in 1638, on Christiana Creek, near Wilmington. From this place, in order to preserve their ascendancy over the Dutch, who were jealous of them, and who looked upon them as intruders, they had extended their settlements in various directions, until finally the whole territory occupied by them extended from Cape Henlopen to the falls of the Delaware, opposite Trenton, and to this tract of country they gave the name of New Sweden.

The first work of Penn was to conciliate the Swedes. Accordingly he commenced by sending among them the royal proclamation, announcing the recent grant to him, along with a proclamation of his own, in which he assured his new subjects that they should "live free under laws of their own making." Penn's object in coming to America was not gain or power altogether, for his ambition did not stop at such objects. He had a higher and nobler aim—that of opening an asylum in the New World, where those deprived of civil and religious liberty in the Old might find a peaceful home.

To induce emigration, he published a flattering account of the province, and offered to sell lands to settlers at the rate of one hundred acres for \$10.* Three ships filled with emigrants, mostly Quakers, left England for America the same year in which the charter was granted, 1681. The first vessel took out William Markham, as agent, proprietor, and deputy-governor. Only one of these vessels arrived safe, one having been blown off to the West Indies, and another was frozen up in the Delaware. Markham carried out with himself three commissioners, together with a plan of a city which Penn proposed to build, and a letter of friendship from Penn to the Indians, whom he addressed as "brethren."

In the following year, 1682, Penn drew up what he called a "Frame of Government" and a code of laws, which were to be submitted to the colonists for their approval. His "Frame of Government" Penn pronounced "extraordinary," because of the "matter of liberty and privilege" which it contained; and because, he further states, of its leaving to himself and his successors "no power of doing mischief—that the will of one man may not hinder the good of the whole country." By this "frame" or constitution of Penn, the executive authority and the proposal of all laws were to be vested in a council of 72 persons, elected by freemen for three years, and one-third of them to go out of office annually. The proprietary or his deputy was to preside over this council, and have a triple vote. All laws passed by this council were to be submitted to an assembly of from 200 to 500 members, chosen by the people. At first the entire body of freemen composed this assembly.

Penn also obtained from the Duke of York, who claimed some territories on the west bank of the Delaware, a quit-claim to Pennsylvania, and a grant of a circle of territory of 12 miles around Newcastle, together with all the territory now embraced in the State of Delaware. Having made these arrangements, he set sail from England in September, 1682, with 100 emigrants. Twenty-three other ships followed him in the same year, and all arrived safely. Penn landed at Newcastle with only seventy of his emigrants, 30 having died of small-pox on the passage. The number of people then in Pennsylvania was between two and three thousand—all, as Penn says, "a plain, stout, industrious people," and the land abounding in all that "an Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, would be well contented with." The first business of Penn after his arrival was to call together the members of the First Assembly of the province. Instead of an attendance of the entire body of the freemen of the different counties, as Penn's "Frame of Government" proposed, there came only 72 delegates from the people of the entire province, bearing a petition to Penn that they might be considered as constituting both council and assembly. The reasons assigned for this entire disregard of the "Frame of Government" were "the fewness of the

* The lands were, however, subject to a perpetual quit-rent of about 2½ mills on each acre; and the purchasers were also to hold lots in a city to be laid out.

people, their inability in estate, and unskilfulness in matters of government." Penn, therefore, to meet these difficulties, remodeled his "Frame of Government," so that the assembly was to consist of 36 members only; and the council, of three members from each county; also he himself, or his deputy, when presiding, was no longer restricted to a triple vote, as before.

Several enactments were made. One naturalized the Dutch and Swedish settlers; another made every freeholder and tax-payer a free-man, with the right of voting and holding office; "faith in Christ," though, was an indispensable qualification. Toleration was extended to all who believed in the existence of God, whom they were allowed to worship after their own manner, except that none were allowed to labor on the Sabbath. This promised toleration, however, was not extended to the Roman Catholics, at least in the early days of the colony.*

The offences expressly prohibited and severely punished, were, "drinking healths, prizes, stage-plays, cards, dice, May-games, masques, revels." The criminal code was mild, murder being the only crime punishable with death. County courts were established for the administration of justice, with trial by jury. The right of primogeniture was only partially abrogated, the oldest son being allowed, as in New-England, a double share of all his father's lands.

All the laws regarding property, crimes, and the rights of citizens, comprised a code, called the "Great Law;" and there was a special provision, that the substance of all the laws should be taught in all the schools—an idea that it would be well to adopt at the present day. A knowledge of the laws of our own country is indispensable, and in all of our schools a correct idea of the substance of them might, and ought to be imparted to the pupils. The idea that a pupil cannot learn anything about laws except in a law-school, is only ridiculous. Pupils are often inquisitive regarding the law on various subjects, and they are generally put off, by being told that when they are a little older they can study law. William Penn's idea of this matter, in 1682, was the correct one, and we would like to see it adopted at the present day. It would be a most salutary reform in our schools if William Penn's idea could be adopted.

After thus establishing the government and laws of the province, Penn hastened to Newcastle to confer with Lord Baltimore regarding the southern boundary of Pennsylvania. Baltimore's charter extended to the 40th degree of north latitude, while that of Penn fixed, as the southern boundary of Pennsylvania, a line running due west from a point on the Delaware, 12 miles above Newcastle, which point was supposed to be about the 40th parallel. Astronomical observations taken by the two parties proved that the 40th parallel crossed the Delaware above the junction of the Schuylkill, thus rendering the two charters irreconcilable. The dispute between Penn and Baltimore resulted in a downright quarrel, which was not settled

* See Hildreth's Hist. of U. S., p. 68.

during the lifetime of either party. Penn's great desire was to acquire for Pennsylvania a portion of Chesapeake bay.

Soon after his visit to Lord Baltimore, at Newcastle, Penn held his famous interview with the Indians, under the great elm of Shakamaxon, commemorated by the pencil of West. The spot is now the site of Kensington, one of the suburbs of Philadelphia. Here the Chiefs of the Delawares, with their armed warriors, met Penn and his unarmed associates, the latter all clad in the simple Quaker garb, which the simple Indians regarded as the habiliments of peace. Penn gave them the stipulated price for their lands, and established with them peace and friendship.

A few months after, in 1683, Penn purchased of the Swedes a tract of land at the confluence of the Delaware and Schuylkill, disregarding entirely the pretensions of Lord Baltimore, and immediately proceeded to lay out the city of Philadelphia. New settlers from England soon arrived, and at the end of the year 82 houses were erected. Many of the first settlers at Philadelphia dwelt in caves dug in the banks of the Delaware, until houses could be built.

During the year 1683, Penn convoked the Assembly of the province of Philadelphia. It provided for a revenue of £2,000, for the expenses of the government in part, to be raised by a tax on spirits. It also established an orphan's court, and appointed three officers in each county, called "peacemakers," to settle disputes and prevent law suits. He caused a large mansion-house to be erected for his residence, on the banks of the Delaware, opposite Burlington, some 20 miles above Philadelphia.

In August, 1684, Penn left for England, appointing five commissioners of the provincial council as a provincial court, with Nicholas Moore for chief-justice. This was the supreme court of law. The executive administration was committed to the council, of which Thomas Lloyd was appointed president. At Penn's departure, the province contained 20 settled townships, and 7,000 inhabitants, of which 2,000 were in the city of Philadelphia. English quaker emigrants, and also some Dutch and German quakers, converts made by Penn and Barclay on the continent, continued to arrive. It was by a party of German quakers that Germantown was settled.

During Penn's absence in England, violent dissensions arose between the council and the assembly; the latter, contrary to the "Frame of Government," assumed the right of suggesting laws, a right expressly given to the governor and council alone. The assembly strove constantly to enlarge its powers, and resorted to the most violent measures. Moore, the chief-justice, and also a member of the assembly, was expelled from it for opposing its usurpations, and impeached for arbitrary conduct in office; and his secretary also was imprisoned for refusing to give up the records. To put an end to these difficulties, Penn intrusted the executive authority to five commissioners, of whom Moore and Lloyd were two, the latter being the president. Lloyd, it seems, sowed dissensions among the colonists, and got them to believe that Penn had enriched himself at their expense. Penn denied the charge, and complained of the conduct

of the assembly and of Lloyd, who finally resigned his office. Penn then appointed John Blackwell as lieutenant-governor of the province, with all the executive authority. Blackwell was very unpopular, and a year of violent discords followed. To restore peace, Penn placed the executive authority in the hands of the council again. (February, 1790.)

In 1687, a printing-press, the third in America, was set up at Philadelphia. In 1689, Penn established a public high-school, with a charter. In the same year, James II., Penn's great patron and firm friend, was driven from his throne; and Penn was twice arrested, in England, on a charge of treasonable correspondence with the fugitive king, but was discharged for want of proof. He now again began to think of returning to America, and of building a new city on the banks of the Susquehanna.

In 1691, Penn was again accused, and compelled to keep himself concealed. In 1692, his provincial government was taken from him, and transferred to Governor Fletcher, of New-York, who, in 1693, united Pennsylvania and Delaware, and extended his authority over both. In 1694, the suspicions against Penn being removed, Pennsylvania was restored to him, with all his rights. The chief instigator of the movements against Penn, which led to the depriving him of his provincial government, was one George Keith, a Scotch Quaker, who renounced his Quakerism, embraced the Church of England, and commenced a violent opposition against his former Quaker friends. Besides declaring Quakerism inconsistent with the exercise of political authority, he also preached abolition doctrines in the streets of Philadelphia, declaring that negro slavery was inconsistent with the principles of good government. Bradford, the only printer then in Pennsylvania, was called to an account for giving countenance to the movements of Keith; and to escape further difficulties, after obtaining his discharge, he removed his press and types to New-York city—the first printing-press there erected. Keith went to England soon after, (1692,) and by his representations induced the Privy Council to deprive Penn of his government.

Penn arrived a second time in America on the 10th of December, 1699, and found the colony in a state of disorder. The people were dissatisfied, and demanded further privileges. Philadelphia was then suffering greatly from the ravages of yellow fever. The province he found, however, greatly improved. Penn granted a new "Frame of Government" to the people, conferring on them greater powers. The council was abolished, and the power of legislation vested in the governor, and an assembly chosen annually. Voters were required to have a freehold of fifty acres of land, or \$166 worth of personal property.

Nothing, however, would satisfy the people of the lower counties, now Delaware, but secession, or separation from Pennsylvania, which took place in 1703. The same governor, however, continued to preside over both, Delaware being separate only in legislation.

Penn, immediately after granting this last charter, returned (1701) to England, where a project had been started by the English minis-

ters to suppress all the proprietary governments in America. It would be interesting to pursue the career of Penn in England; but we must be brief. Penn died in England in 1718, leaving his interests in Pennsylvania and Delaware to his sons, John, Thomas, and Richard Penn, who managed the provinces, principally by deputies, down to the time of the American Revolution, at which time the commonwealth of Pennsylvania purchased all their claims in the province for about half a million of dollars.

At the time of the death of Penn, the population of Pennsylvania was increasing, from emigration, at the rate of five or six thousand annually. The principal product of the province was wheat, which was exported in considerable quantities to Spain, Portugal, and the West Indies. Lands then sold at \$45 per hundred acres, the proprietors always reserving for themselves, out of every purchase, a tenth part of the best lands, under the name of manors, as their private property. In 1741, Philadelphia contained 12,000 inhabitants.

Of the early commerce of Pennsylvania we know but little. The first trade was that carried on with the Indians in skins and furs, and the first product of the soil was tobacco, of which the province exported, in 1688-9, fourteen cargoes; but the competition of Maryland and Virginia caused the Pennsylvanians to abandon the cultivation of tobacco for that of wheat. The trade of the province was greatly injured by the war between England and France, continuing from 1688 to 1697. It caused much distress and poverty in the colony, in which money was so scarce, that in Philadelphia, it is said, "even pieces of tin and lead were current for small change."

From 1697 to 1776, the trade of Pennsylvania appears to have increased slowly. There was, however, in almost every year during this long period of seventy-nine years, a vast excess of imports over exports. During the wars between England, France and Spain, the depredations of privateers almost entirely interrupted the foreign trade of the province; besides, when these depredations were absent, the trade suffered from heavy exactions made on all vessels entering the Delaware. The exports in 1697 amounted to £3,347. We compile the following table, to give some idea of the progress of the trade of Pennsylvania from 1697 to 1774:

	Average Exports of Pennsylvania.		Average Imports of Pennsylvania.	
	£	£	£	£
1697 to 1707.....	1,477 to	5,220.....	2,997 to	18,529
1707 to 1717.....	38 to	5,193.....	5,881 to	22,505
1717 to 1727.....	4,057 to	12,823.....	15,992 to	42,209
1727 to 1737.....	7,434 to	21,919.....	29,799 to	61,513
1737 to 1747.....	7,446 to	17,158.....	11,918 to	91,010
1747 to 1757.....	3,832 to	38,527.....	75,330 to	245,644
1757 to 1767.....	14,190 to	39,170.....	168,426 to	707,998
1767 to 1774.....	26,111 to	69,611.....	134,681 to	728,744

During the period of 79 years, embraced in the above table, there were 29 years of war between England, France and Spain, together with an almost constant warfare carried on with the Indians of the western frontiers, which also embarrassed trade. From 1776 to 1783, Pennsylvania had but little or no foreign trade. It was then,

however, not idle. Its citizens were among the foremost in the glorious struggle for independence, aiding it by their example, their money, and their personal services.

The first bank established in the United States was the Bank of Pennsylvania, opened at Philadelphia on the 17th of July, 1780, with a capital of £300,000—its special object being to supply the American army with provisions. This bank continued until the Bank of North America went into operation in 1782, which latter continued until the United States Bank commenced operations in 1791. Paper money, however, was first manufactured in Pennsylvania, in the year 1722, under Governor Keith. A "paper money loan system" was invented by him, and loan offices were established in every county. Bills to the amount of \$150,000 were issued in 1723. In 1730, the money was found to be so much depreciated, that further issues were suspended.

At the close of the Revolutionary War, in 1783, the trade of the colonies revived. Commercial relations were entered into with most of the European nations, and the resources of the country began a rapid development. The wars commenced by France, in 1792, with the other European powers, and which were continued till the abdication of Napoleon, in 1814, affected our commerce considerably. Our foreign trade flourished beyond all precedent, and large fortunes were made by hundreds of our citizens, in consequence. Pennsylvania shared largely in this prosperity. Large importations were made from China and India into Philadelphia for re-exportation to European markets. Our ships enjoyed the carrying trade of the world. The population of Philadelphia in 1790 was 42,000.

The following table shows the progress of the foreign trade of Pennsylvania, from 1791 to 1850:—

Exports.		Imports.	Exports.		Imports.
1791....	\$3,436,093....	—	1820....	5,743,549....	—
1792....	3,820,662....	—	1821....	7,391,767....	8,158,922
1793....	6,958,836....	—	1822....	9,047,802....	11,874,170
1794....	6,643,092....	—	1823....	9,617,192....	13,696,770
1795....	11,518,260....	—	1824....	9,364,893....	11,865,531
1796....	17,513,866....	—	1825....	11,269,981....	15,041,797
1797....	11,446,291....	—	1826....	8,331,799....	13,551,779
1798....	8,915,463....	—	1827....	7,575,833....	11,212,935
1799....	12,431,967....	—	1828....	6,051,480....	12,884,408
1800....	11,949,679....	—	1829....	4,089,935....	10,100,152
1801....	17,438,193....	—	1830....	4,291,793....	8,702,122
1802....	12,677,475....	—	1831....	5,513,713....	12,124,083
1803....	7,525,710....	—	1832....	3,516,066....	10,678,358
1804....	11,030,157....	—	1833....	4,078,951....	10,451,250
1805....	13,762,252....	—	1834....	3,989,746....	10,479,268
1806....	17,574,712....	—	1835....	3,739,275....	12,389,937
1807....	16,864,744....	—	1836....	3,971,553....	15,068,233
1808....	4,013,330....	—	1837....	3,841,599....	11,680,111
1809....	9,049,241....	—	1838....	3,477,151....	9,360,371
1810....	10,993,398....	—	1839....	5,299,415....	15,050,715
1811....	9,560,117....	—	1840....	6,820,145....	8,464,882
1812....	5,973,750....	—	1841....	5,152,501....	10,346,698
1813....	3,577,117....	—	1842....	3,776,727....	7,385,858
1814....	—	—	1843....	2,071,945....	5,760,630
1815....	4,593,919....	—	1844....	3,535,256....	7,219,267
1816....	7,196,246....	—	1845....	3,574,363....	8,159,227
1817....	8,735,592....	—	1850....	4,501,606....	12,066,154
1818....	8,759,403....	—	1851....	[Not yet published.]	
1819....	6,293,788....	—			

We shall continue this paper under the heads of population, mineral resources, manufactures, commerce, internal improvements, banks, finances, judiciary, schools and colleges, &c., bringing each down to the present time.

Population.—The following table will show the progressive movement of the population of Pennsylvania, from 1790 to 1850:—

Date of Census.	Total Population.	Decennial increase.
1790.....	434,373.....
1800.....	602,365.....	167,992.....38.6 per cent.
1810.....	810,091.....	207,726.....34.4 "
1820.....	1,049,458.....	239,367.....29.5 "
1830.....	1,348,233.....	298,775.....28.4 "
1840.....	1,724,033.....	375,800.....27.8 "
1850.....	2,314,897.....	590,864.....34.2 "

The following is the population of the principal cities of Pennsylvania, for 1850:

Philadelphia.....	408,815	Pittsburg.....	50,519
Reading.....	15,748	Alleghany.....	21,262
Lancaster.....	12,369		

We omit all places whose population is less than 10,000. The area of Pennsylvania, in square miles, is 46,000, giving a population of 50.25 to the square mile.

Mineral Resources.—The mineral wealth of Pennsylvania is very great, consisting of an inexhaustible supply of coal, iron and salt. Its immense coal regions form its most interesting and important mineral feature. *Bituminous* coal, of an excellent quality, is found almost everywhere in the state, west of the Alleghany mountains, and in the south part of the state, east of the mountains. The *anthracite* coal region, with some few exceptions, is bounded on the north-west by the north branch of the Susquehanna, extending in a north-east direction over 60 miles, and divided into the southern, middle and northern coal-fields. The great deposits of anthracite coal, in Pennsylvania, have an area of about 975 square miles, or 624,000 acres. The deposits in some places are from 50 to 60 feet thick. The southern anthracite coal-basin of Pennsylvania is 60 miles long by two broad, with an aggregate thickness of 100 feet. Indeed, 30 out of the 54 counties of the state, are in whole, or in part, based upon coal. The thickest coal deposits in England are only 30 feet thick.* The bituminous coal region of Pennsylvania has an area of 21,000 square miles, or 13,440,000 acres.

The coal mines of Pennsylvania are a source of inexhaustible wealth. They are more valuable than the gold mines of California; and if Pennsylvania had nothing else, her coal mines alone would make her rich. The working of these mines may be dated from 1820. The quantity dug and sent to market since that time amounts to 28,998,286 tons. The progress made in the working of these mines is shown by the following statement: There were dug,

In 1820.....	365 tons.
" 1825.....	34,896 "
" 1830.....	174,734 "
" 1835.....	575,103 "
" 1840.....	867,045 "
" 1845.....	2,002,877 "
" 1850.....	3,371,255 "

* Hitchcock's Geology, p. 62.

The business may be considered as still in its infancy. What will be the demand for coal from those mines, in 20 years from this time, when it is probable that there will be at least 20 steam vessels consuming coal to one now? Last year, the coal taken from the mines of Pennsylvania was sold for \$16,000,000.

Next to coal stands *iron* among the mineral products of Pennsylvania. Pennsylvania now produces as much iron as did the whole of Great Britain, in 1820, and during the last ten years the quantity of Pennsylvania iron has doubled. Pennsylvania now produces as much iron as France; more than Russia and Sweden united, and more than all Germany.* To have some idea of the abundance of iron in Pennsylvania, we have only to consider the fact that, of the 62 counties of that state, 45 contain iron works, and the remaining 17 abound in iron and coal. It is estimated that Pennsylvania makes one-half of all the iron produced in the United States. The total number of iron works of all kinds in the state is 504; the capital invested in lands, buildings and machinery, is \$20,502,076; the number of men employed, 30,103, and the number of horses, 13,562. The fuel used by all these works cost, in 1847, \$4,879,884. One and a-half millions of cords of wood are consumed annually by these works, thus clearing of timber, 37,000 acres yearly, or 48 square miles. It is estimated that this does not exceed one-fourth the ability of the state to furnish wood annually for ever.

As the subject of iron manufactures in Pennsylvania is at this present time a matter of much interest, the iron manufacturers of that state making complaint of a want of adequate protection from the general government, and ascribing all their failures to this cause alone, we give the following table, showing the number of iron works that have been built in the state since 1840, and the number that have failed since that date. It will show the progress of the iron manufacturing business in Pennsylvania during the last 10 years:

	Built.	Failed.		Built.	Failed.
1840.....	135.....	6	1846.....	53.....	4
1841.....	6.....	2	1847.....	25.....	24
1842.....	20.....	20	1848.....	17.....	37
1843.....	7.....	7	1849.....	10.....	41
1844.....	21.....	11	1850.....	7.....	22
1845.....	30.....	3	1851.....

The amount of iron manufactured in Pennsylvania since 1847, is as follows:

1847.....	389,350 tons.
1849.....	253,370 "
1850.....	198,813 "
1851.....	150,000 "

From this, it appears, that the manufacture has diminished more than 50 per cent. during the last three years.

Besides iron, there is in Pennsylvania an extensive *copper* and *lead* formation, recently discovered near the Schuylkill River, about 20 miles from Philadelphia. These mines have been successfully worked

* See Memorial of Pennsylvania Iron Manufacturers to Congress, 1849.

during the past year. The copper ore yields 20 per cent. of pure copper, and the lead ore, 75 per cent. of pure lead. With the lead ore, there is also found silver ore, yielding silver about \$35 to the ton. These mines of copper, silver and lead, are very promising.

Manufactures.—As the returns of the last U. S. census are not yet published in full, we cannot give a complete account of the manufactures of Pennsylvania. Mr. Kennedy, superintendent of the census, at Washington, has furnished only a general report of the facts relating to a few of the most important manufactures, from which we compile the following table, showing the present state of some of the more important manufactures of Pennsylvania :

MANUFACTURES OF PENNSYLVANIA, 1850.

	Capital invested.	Value of products.	Hands employed.
Cotton goods.....	\$4,528,925.....	\$5,322,262.....	7,663
Woolen goods.....	3,005,064.....	5,321,866.....	5,726
Pig iron.....	8,570,425.....	6,071,513.....	9,294
Iron castings.....	3,422,924.....	5,354,881.....	4,783

The principal manufacturing places of Pennsylvania are Pittsburg and Philadelphia. Of the first of these cities, we can give the state of manufactures at the present time with sufficient accuracy. There are in Pittsburg 13 rolling mills, employing 2,500 hands, and a capital of \$5,000,000. These mills consume 60,000 tons of pig metal, and produce bar iron and nails to the amount of \$4,000,000 annually. There are also thirty large foundries, and several smaller ones, employing 2,500 hands, and a capital of \$2,000,000. They consume 20,000 tons of pig metal, and yield articles amounting to \$2,000,000 annually. There are two establishments for manufacturing locks, latches, coffee-mills, scales, and other articles of iron, employing 500 hands, and a capital of \$250,000. These two establishments consume annually 1,200 tons of metal, converting it into goods worth \$3,000,000. Pittsburg also has five large cotton factories and several smaller ones, employing 1,500 hands—capital, \$1,500,000, and producing products, out of 15,000 bales of cotton annually consumed, worth \$1,500,000.

There are also eight flint-glass manufactories in Pittsburg, employing five hundred hands, a capital of \$300,000, and producing, out of 150 tons of lead, and 200 tons of pearl-ashes, various articles of glassware, worth annually \$400,000. There are also seven phial furnaces, and 11 window-glass manufactories, employing 600 hands, a capital of \$250,000, and yielding products to the amount of \$600,000 annually. One soda-ash manufactory employs 75 men, and produces, annually, 1,500 tons. One copper-smelting establishment produces, annually, 600 tons of refined copper, worth \$250,000. One copper-rolling mill yields copper sheathing worth \$150,000 annually. Five white lead factories produce, annually, with a capital of \$150,000, 150,000 kegs of lead, worth \$200,000. There are also many factories of the smaller sizes of iron, and several establishments for the manufacture of axes, hatchets, spring steel, steel springs, axles, anvils, vices, saws of all kinds, gun barrels, shovels, spades, forks, hoes, tacks, brads, &c., &c.

It is estimated that the full value of all the manufactures of Pittsburgh does not fall short of \$50,000,000.

Commerce.—The exports to foreign countries from Pennsylvania amounted, in 1850, to \$4,501,606, and the imports to \$12,066,154. In 1841, the exports amounted to \$5,152,501, and the imports to \$10,346,698. The amount of domestic produce exported in 1850, was \$4,049,464.

Internal Improvements.—Pennsylvania has 28 rail-roads, varying from 4 to 174 miles in length, and making, in all, a line of 918 miles. This does not include some that are yet incomplete. The entire cost of these roads was \$35,401,033.

The principal canal of Pennsylvania is the Pennsylvania Canal, the eastern branch of which extends from Columbia, on the Susquehanna, to Hollidaysburg, at the foot of the Alleghanies, a distance of 172 miles. This branch is connected by a rail-road passing over the mountains, with the western branch of the canal, extending from Johnstown to Pittsburgh, 104 miles, making the whole length of the canal 276 miles. A canal extends from the Pennsylvania Canal, at the mouth of the Juniata, to Cumberland, 39 miles, where it connects with the North and West Branch canals. The West Branch Canal extends from Northumberland, along the west of the Susquehanna River, 75 miles, to Farrandsville, near the bituminous coal region. The North Branch division extends from Northumberland, 73 miles, to a little above Wilkesbarre. The Delaware division of the Pennsylvania Canal extends from tide-water at Bristol, 20 miles above Philadelphia, to Easton, at the mouth of the Lehigh, where it joins the navigation of the Lehigh company, extending to the coal region, 25 miles. The Schuylkill navigation commences at the Fairmount Dam, near Philadelphia, and extends to Port Carbon, the heart of the coal region. There is also the Union Canal, which extends from the Schuylkill, near Reading, to Middletown, on the Susquehanna, 82 miles. It has a branch 23 miles long on Swatara Creek, which leads to the coal region. The Susquehanna, or Tidewater Canal, extends from Wrightsville, opposite Columbia, to Havre-de-Grace, in Maryland, a distance of 45 miles, connecting the Pennsylvania Canal with the tide-water of Chesapeake Bay.

Banks.—The first experiment of paper currency made in Pennsylvania was in 1722, when the province issued bills to the amount of £15,000. No loans were made but on land security, or plate deposited in the loan office. Borrowers were obliged to pay five per cent.; and the bills of the province were made a legal tender in all payments, *on pain of confiscating* the debt, or forfeiting the commodity. Penalties were also imposed on all persons who presumed to make any bargain or sale on cheaper terms, in case of being paid in gold or silver. One-eighth of the public debts thus created was to be annually paid. We do not propose to give the history of banking in Pennsylvania, but merely to state the present condition in general terms of the banks of the state. Banking, like everything else, has progressed rapidly in Pennsylvania. It had in November, 1850, no less than 54 banking institutions, or one for each county in the state.

These 54 banks have a capital of \$19,125,477, and a circulation of \$12,072,888. The tax paid on dividends in 1850, amounted to \$153,877, and the tax on corporation stocks to \$70,008. Banking operations in Pennsylvania have not fluctuated much since 1842, in which year also the banking capital was \$19,127,677. Last year, applications were made to the legislature of Pennsylvania for an increase of capital to the amount of \$4,900,000, which includes some new banks.

BANKS IN PENNSYLVANIA IN JANUARY, 1852.

Banks.	Capital.	Banks.	Capital.
Philadelphia.....15	\$10,518,600	Lancaster.....4	\$955,000
Bristol.....1	92,220	Lebanon.....1	80,320
Brownsville.....1	175,000	Middletown.....1	100,000
Carlisle.....1	22,500	Norristown.....1	384,000
Chambersburg.....1	205,470	Northumberland.....1	160,000
Chester.....1	155,640	Pittsburg.....4	2,618,543
Columbia.....1	307,300	Pottsville.....1	199,120
Danville.....1	165,770	Reading.....1	300,000
Doylestown.....1	60,000	Schuylkill Haven.....1	100,000
Easton.....2	550,000	Washington.....1	120,000
Erie.....1	101,890	Waynesburg.....1	100,000
Germantown.....1	152,000	Westchester.....1	225,000
Gettysburg.....1	123,873	Wilkesbarre.....1	85,330
Hanover.....1	36,000	Williamport.....1	100,000
Harrisburg.....2	350,000	York.....2	320,000
Honesdale.....1	100,000		

Total, 54 banks, with \$18,966,351 capital. New-York, with less than one-third more of population, has 218 banks, with \$58,497,345 capital; Massachusetts, with half the population, 137 banks, and \$43,350,000 capital. We are indebted to the Bankers' Magazine for the figures.

Finances.—According to a report made to the Legislature of Pennsylvania, by the Auditor-General, in January, 1851, the total public debt of the state was then \$40,677,214 68. Of this debt, all of which is funded but \$912,570, there are \$200,000 bearing 4½ per cent. interest; \$38,009,817 bearing 5 per cent.; and \$2,387,396, bearing 6 per cent. interest.

The productive property owned by the state is as follows:

Stock in incorporated companies.....	\$1,907,948
Pennsylvania rail-roads and canals.....	29,204,787
Total productive property.....	\$31,112,735

The total amount of interest paid by the state annually on its liabilities, is about \$2,204,700.

The total receipts of the state, from all sources and available means in 1850, were \$5,634,338; and the total expenditures for the same year, \$4,569,053.

Some of the principal items of expenditure of the state in 1850 were as follows: public improvements, \$1,488,799; expenses of government, \$272,899; common schools, \$213,728; interest, \$2,004,700; charitable institutions; \$62,267; pensions and gratuities, \$17,277; military expenses, \$16,282; commissioners of sinking

fund, \$318,864; penitentiaries, \$19,283; damages on public works, \$28,068.

Some of the chief sources of income were: Tax on real and personal estate, \$1,317,821; canal and rail-road tolls, \$1,713,848; tax on bank dividends and corporation stocks, \$300,000; retailers' licenses, \$171,062; tavern licenses, \$107,427; auction duties, \$44,898; tax on writs, wills, deeds, &c., \$45,409; auction commissions, \$18,673; tax on certain offices, \$14,047; military fines, \$12,952; brokers' licenses, \$10,228; other licenses, \$21,323; collateral inherent tax, \$102,295; loans, \$270,000.

Judiciary.—By the amended constitution now in force, all judges in Pennsylvania are elected by the people. The judges of the Supreme Court are chosen at large for a term of fifteen years; and the judges of the several courts of Common Pleas and other courts of record, and all other judges, are elected by the electors of the districts over which they preside, for a term of 10 years. The associate justices of the Common Pleas hold office five years. All judges are liable to removal for lack of good behavior; and the governor, with two-thirds of each branch of the legislature, can remove a judge for reasonable cause, short of sufficient grounds for impeachment.

The salary of a judge of the Supreme Court is \$1,600; that of a judge of the District Courts, \$2,000; and of the Courts of Common Pleas, from \$1,600 to \$2,600.

There are four District Courts, invested with the civil jurisdiction of the Common Pleas in all cases exceeding a certain amount.

Schools and Colleges.—The common school system in Pennsylvania is complete. The following are the statistics for 1850:

Whole number of common schools in the state	3,844	
Average number of months of teaching	5.1	
Number of teachers, male and female	11,241	
Average wages, per month, of male teachers.....		\$17 20
" " " female "		\$10 15
Number of male scholars.....	242,621	
Number of female scholars.....	189,181	
Number learning German.....	11,041	
Cost of teaching each scholar, per month.....		\$1 44
Amount of school tax levied.....		\$795 401
State appropriation		\$159 367
Entire expense of schools, including instruction, school-houses, repairs, fuel, and contingencies...		\$926 447
Regular annual state appropriation.....		\$200 000

Colleges, high-schools and academies, in Pennsylvania, are numerous. The University of Pennsylvania was founded in Philadelphia, in 1755. Its foundation may be said to have been laid by Dr. Franklin, in 1742, who about that time projected an academy and free school, which became presently a college, and finally the University of Pennsylvania, which at present has 7 professors, but only 88 students. Its president is John Ludlow, D. D. Dickinson College, at Carlisle, was founded in 1783: it has 8 professors and 179 students; president, Jesse T. Peck, D. D. Jefferson College, at Canonsburg, was founded

in 1802: it has 8 professors and 197 students; president, A. B. Brown, D. D. Washington College, at Washington, in the western part of the state, was founded in 1806: it has 8 professors and 189 students; president, James Clark, D. D. Alleghany College is at Meadville: it was established in 1817, and has 7 professors and 106 students; president, J. Barker, D. D. Pennsylvania College is at Gettysburg, and has 7 professors and 64 students; founded in 1832; president, H. L. Baugher. Lafayette College, at Easton, was established in 1832, and has 7 professors and 82 students; president, George Junkin, D. D. Marshall College, at Mercersburg, was founded in 1835, and has 6 professors and 58 students; president, J. W. Nevin, D. D.

Pennsylvania has, we believe, but one law-school, that of Dickinson College. It has seven theological seminaries, of different Protestant denominations: it has four medical schools, all in Philadelphia. The oldest of these is the Medical Department of the University of Pennsylvania, the oldest medical school in America. It was founded by the efforts of Drs. Shippen and Morgan, two eminent physicians in Philadelphia, before the Revolution. It has 7 professors and 450 students. It graduated, since its commencement, 5,316 students. Jefferson Medical College, founded in 1824, has 7 professors, 514 students, and has 2,036 graduates. The Medical Department of Pennsylvania College was founded in 1838. It has 7 professors, 176 students, and 73 graduates. The Philadelphia College of Medicine has 7 professors, 75 students, and 250 graduates.

We regret that we have not more ample statistics to offer on the subject of education in Pennsylvania, and on other subjects. The complete returns of the last U. S. census are yet unpublished. In 1840, there were, in a population of 1,724,033 persons, 33,940 white persons, over 20 years of age, who could neither read nor write. The figures of the census of 1850, will probably show a more favorable result.

Agricultural Products.—Pennsylvania ranks fourth in the Union in respect to the extent of her improved land; New-York having 12,285,077 acres of improved land; Virginia, 10,150,106; Ohio, 9,730,650; and Pennsylvania, 8,619,631 acres. Georgia ranks next. The large extent of mountain lands in Pennsylvania restricts very much her agricultural area. Some portions of the state, particularly the northern and western, are very thinly inhabited, although the lands are good. Pennsylvania, however, occupies no mean position in respect to agriculture, when comparing the value of her farming implements and machinery with those of other states. Those of New-York are estimated at \$22,217,563; Pennsylvania, \$14,931,093; Ohio, \$12,716,153; Louisiana, \$11,326,310; Virginia, \$7,021,658. The value of the live stock of Pennsylvania is \$42,146,711—the state, in this respect, being in advance of all others, except New-York and Ohio.

Wheat.—Pennsylvania produces more wheat than any other state of the Union; its yield, in 1850, being 15,482,191 bushels. Ohio produced 14,967,056; Virginia, 14,516,950; and New-York, 13,073,357 bushels. *Indian Corn.*—Pennsylvania produced, in 1850, more than

New-York, by about 2,000,000 bushels; but not more than one-third as much as Ohio, Kentucky, Illinois, Indiana, Tennessee, and Missouri, the six greatest Indian corn-growing states. The amount for Pennsylvania is 19,707,702 bushels. *Tobacco*—Pennsylvania produced, in 1850, 857,619 lbs. *Wool*—4,784,367 lbs. *Wine*—23,839 gallons. *Butter*—40,554,741 lbs. *Cheese*—2,395,279 lbs. *Hay*—1,826,265 tons. *Flaxseed*—43,627 bushels. *Maple Sugar*—2,218,644 lbs. These figures are derived from the census of 1850. When the returns of that census are complete, we shall give the results in full.

COMMERCE OF PHILADELPHIA, 1850-1851.

The following is an official statement of the amount and value of the exports from Philadelphia to foreign ports during the year ending the 30th September last:

Flour, brls.	304,812	\$1,303,527	Butter, lbs.	5,770,973	\$76,794
Rye Flour, brls.	13,341	45,292	Cheese, lbs.	168,044	2,793
Corn Meal, brls.	71,883	210,004	Potatoes, bushels	3,334	736
Bread, brls.	19,179	68,174	Apples, brls.	250	72,098
do. kegs	11,933		Rice, tcs.	3,374	73,152
Wheat, bushels.	342,221	369,356	Tobacco, leaf, hhds.	631	8,250
Corn, bushels	609,176	392,490	Beer, gallons.	10,431	3,373
Other Grain, bushels	"	36,246	Porter and Cider, doz.	3,373	788,021
Bark, hhds.	5,501	129,907	Candles, lbs.	788,021	883,992
Cotton, bales.	2,072	113,063	Soap, lbs.	883,992	216,750
Coal, tons.	13,827	55,802	Iron manufactures.	"	49,778
Dried Fish, cwt.	3,257	8,678	Drugs	"	247,113
Pickled Fish, brls.	1,243	5,588	Domestic pkgs.	4,539	4,107
Sperm Oil, gallons.	12,929	16,486	Books	"	12,119
Whale Oil, gallons.	132,802	69,732	Paper	"	2,641
Sperm Candles, lbs.	45,076	15,423	Paints	"	3,676
Manufactures of Wool.	"	162,036	Vinegar, gallons.	35,480	30,942
Tar and Pitch, brls.	1,612	95,271	Furniture.	"	38,142
Rosin, brls.	14,040		Tobacco, manuf. lbs.	218,166	97,300
Beef, brls.	7,442	136,061	Gunpowder, lbs	97,300	13,021
Tallow, lbs.	587,002		Nails, lbs	413,634	13,742
Pork, brls.	6,887				
Hams, lbs.	677,650	436,611			
Lard, lbs.	3,268,090				

EXPORTS BREADSTUFFS FROM PHILADELPHIA, FROM 1831 TO 1852.

We have prepared the following table, showing the exports of wheat and rye flour, corn meal, wheat and corn, from this port annually, for the last twenty years:

Wheat Flour.					
1831.....brls.	259,785	1837.....brls.	33,680	1842.....brls.	161,866
1832.....brls.	151,917	1838.....brls.	69,622	1843.....brls.	128,517
1833.....brls.	132,622	1839.....brls.	191,360	1844.....brls.	196,433
1834.....brls.	87,905	1840.....brls.	284,774	1845.....brls.	201,956
1835.....brls.	96,098	1841.....brls.	105,555	1846.....brls.	306,610
1836.....brls.	67,113			1847.....brls.	420,684
Rye Flour.					
1831.....brls.	8,433	1837.....brls.	17,276	1842.....brls.	92,530
1832.....brls.	13,040	1838.....brls.	14,211	1843.....brls.	92,303
1833.....brls.	27,930	1839.....brls.	24,527	1844.....brls.	21,904
1834.....brls.	23,795	1840.....brls.	36,471	1845.....brls.	17,008
1835.....brls.	21,038	1841.....brls.	26,866	1846.....brls.	19,730
1836.....brls.	27,429			1847.....brls.	20,407
Corn Meal.					
1831.....brls.	45,432	1837.....brls.	63,803	1842.....brls.	106,484
1832.....brls.	50,328	1838.....brls.	64,002	1843.....brls.	101,356
1833.....brls.	51,903	1839.....brls.	73,800	1844.....brls.	115,101
1834.....brls.	50,018	1840.....brls.	89,486	1845.....brls.	144,857
1835.....brls.	50,269	1841.....brls.	108,822	1846.....brls.	300,531
1836.....brls.	42,706			1847.....brls.	140,014
				1848.....brls.	26,536
				1849.....brls.	25,054
				1850.....brls.	94,334
				1851.....brls.	63,385

Wheat.

1831....bush. 61,282	1840....bush. 280,047	1844....bush. 23,375	1848....bush. 207,092
1832..... 2,258	1841..... 56,571	1845..... 86,089	1849..... 177,312
1835..... 2,903	1842..... 87,953	1846..... 245,136	1850..... 205,670
1839..... 37,831	1843..... 32,235	1847..... 523,538	1851..... 225,301

Corn.

1831....bush. 42,993	1837....bush. 21,486	1842....bush. 83,772	1847....bush. 1,102,210
1832..... 48,859	1838..... 17,087	1843..... 74,613	1848..... 817,150
1833..... 60,708	1839..... 17,117	1844..... 110,008	1849..... 906,823
1834..... 31,526	1840..... 76,749	1845..... 129,256	1850..... 602,680
1835..... 25,457	1841..... 80,366	1846..... 279,930	1851..... 554,545
1836..... 19,117			

ANNUAL ARRIVALS AT PHILADELPHIA.

The following table shows the number of vessels which arrived at this port annually from 1835 to 1851 inclusive. It will be seen that the increase has been very rapid of late years :

Years.	Foreign.	Coastwise.	Total.	Years.	Foreign.	Coastwise.	Total.
1835.....	429.....	3573.....	4002.....	1844.....	472.....	7777.....	8189.....
1836.....	421.....	3764.....	4185.....	1845.....	387.....	8029.....	8416.....
1837.....	409.....	7476.....	8185.....	1846.....	459.....	6018.....	6477.....
1838.....	464.....	10,800.....	11,324.....	1847.....	657.....	18,069.....	18,726.....
1839.....	521.....	11,188.....	11,709.....	1848.....	542.....	23,921.....	24,463.....
1840.....	456.....	9706.....	10,162.....	1849.....	525.....	24,594.....	25,169.....
1841.....	504.....	9246.....	9750.....	1850.....	518.....	27,035.....	27,553.....
1842.....	454.....	7973.....	8427.....	1851.....	576.....	26,484.....	27,060.....
1843.....	372.....	7659.....	8031.....				

ART. IV.—RAIL-ROAD PROSPECTS AND PROGRESS.

POSITION OF TENNESSEE IN REFERENCE TO RAIL-ROADS—DUTY OF THE STATE IN CONSTRUCTING ROADS—THEIR INFLUENCE, SOCIALLY, INDUSTRIALLY AND POLITICALLY—WHAT THE SOUTH SHOULD DO TO REGAIN OR RETAIN POWER—GROWTH OF THE RAIL-ROAD SYSTEM, ETC., ETC.

[Having at last a little spare time, we have written out from our notes the speech delivered by us in October last in the legislative halls at Nashville. A copy of it was requested for publication, and we comply with the request in this manner, that the kindness of gentlemen may not be rewarded by a *pecuniary* tax. Our readers will receive it as an equivalent for the article we are bound to contribute to each number of the magazine, and which we chance not to have the time to write. The speech was delivered as a member, and in behalf of the South-western Convention committee,]—EDITOR.

FELLOW-CITIZENS OF TENNESSEE:—In the history of our country, the star of empire has been westward. Population, wealth, refinement, intelligence, have all been sweeping into the great Western Valley. The crowning achievements of them all, the telegraph and the rail-road, twin sisters, are now ready, and waiting to perform their glorious mission in elevating and perfecting our civilization and our progress.

I stand upon the soil of Tennessee, and, for the first time, in its proud capital. Tennessee, the first growth of western progress—Tennessee, where sleep two presidents of this republic, the man of iron will, who throttled the British lion, and he whose career of fame and honor has just now ended in the gloom of death!—a state with a

million of inhabitants,—with inexhaustible agricultural, mineral and manufacturing resources in embryo or in development,—with public credit entirely unimpaired, and with none of the trammels of public debt.

Gentlemen, should Tennessee sleep in this age of progress? In her central situation, with her wealth and her resources, and a country as favored as any upon which the light of God's sun has ever shone—should Tennessee sleep, and let the star of westward progress pass over her, leaving her upon the horizon rather than in the zenith? I think I see it and hear it in everything around me—never, never! You are prepared, then, to act, gentlemen—the South demands it from you; the Southwest, in whose councils you are destined to lead. The eyes of all the states are upon your legislature, which is now in session, and which I am informed, and which I in part know, is one of the most enlightened and liberal that has ever met in your capital. All their public works are striking for your state to radiate through it and to project to the North, the East, the South and the West, making Nashville, indeed, a queen city—a depot of travel and of freights for the great lakes and the gulf of Mexico—for the Atlantic seaboard and the mighty Northwest.

Gentlemen, the spirit of improvement and progress which has descended upon you, is sweeping down the valley of the Mississippi, and producing its wonderful results in all of the states to the southward of your limits. It is for you, legislators, the first to sit during this excitement of the public mind, to lead the way and direct the spirit of the times to immediate and practical results. Indicate your course of policy, and let it be a broad and a liberal one, something worthy of a great state like Tennessee; and believe me, when I say it, that Mississippi and Louisiana will unite upon the same platform of improvement with you, and that Alabama, and Arkansas, and Texas, will respond to the extent of their means and capacities. These states are but in the infancy of progress and improvement, and are now looking to you to pave the way for a system which henceforward shall emphatically be known as the *South-western* system. With your resolutions and acts in their hands, the friends of improvement may walk boldly, and I believe triumphantly, into the legislatures of Mississippi and Louisiana, which are soon to be in session.

Gentlemen, with all your wonderful resources, you are, perhaps, worse off than any state in the Union with regard to a market. You are shut in by mountains on the one side, and on the other shut off from the Mississippi by little streams which you call "rivers," which drag their slow length along, and approximate to John Randolph's account of the Ohio, a river which, when it is not locked up in ice, has run dry of water. How can such a state work out a high destiny? If we must be dependent upon her slow coaches, though they run upon turnpikes, her beautiful Nashville might as well be a Timbuctoo, for what the rest of the world would know of it. God may have given you coal and iron sufficient to work the spindles and navies of the world; but they will sleep in your everlasting hills until the trumpet of Gabriel shall sound, unless you can do some-

thing better than build *turnpikes*. You may have granaries sufficiently stocked to feed mankind, but mankind will starve and perish before a bushel of grain can reach them.

I honor the spirit which has given to your state, in her turnpikes, the very best common roads in the world. Honor to Tennessee for her liberal state and individual contributions. These turnpikes were a great march in advance, and are but the pioneers of other improvements. They are a step in progress; though like the hand-loom and the flat-boat, and the old-fashioned spinning-wheel, they have become obsolete. For you to rest upon your turnpikes, and go no further, would be as reasonable as the act of the old hand-loom weavers who conspired against steam, or the scribes and copyists who rebelled against the printing press, as an invention of the devil and Dr. Faustus.

You have about 1,000 miles of turnpike, which have cost on an average \$3,000 per mile, or \$3,000,000. These are now paying but small *money* dividends. The reason is, that turnpikes are very costly modes of communication, and will invite no other trade than that which of *necessity* belongs to them. Charles Ellet, Esq., of the Virginia Public Works, estimates the freights on turnpikes to cost 15 and 20 cents per ton per mile; whilst on rail-roads they are but 2½ cents, and canals, 1½ cents. Yet, gentlemen, these *money* dividends are but a small consideration. I am told by intelligent gentlemen along the route of your turnpikes, that land has appreciated in value from \$2 to \$10 per acre. If this be the case, the roads have more than paid for themselves. Take a road of 100 miles, and suppose a cost of \$5000 per mile \$500,000, and suppose land on each side for five miles back to be raised in value only 70 cents an acre, you have the whole of the investment! I defy the proof that the average advancement has not reached this figure. If, then, with this imperfect and now almost obsolete mode of communication, so much has been added to the value of your landed property, how much may you expect from that physically perfect mode which is called a rail-road, and which can carry off the surplus of your lands at one-fifth the present cost of doing it, as well as increase the demand for this surplus.

Do you ask how it is that a rail-road or a canal raises the price of land? The case is simple. I will take for illustration that of a planter having to do fifty miles of wagoning, and thousands of bales of cotton are wagoned from 100 to 200 miles. Suppose the wagoning be to Nashville: can this cost less than \$2 per bale?—commissions at Nashville, etc., 50 cents—freight by the river to New-Orleans, \$1 50—insurance, 50—total, \$4 50. Now, suppose a rail-road direct to New-Orleans from this planter's door, and 2½ cents the ton per mile be charged, say 550 miles, we have \$3 50, a saving of one dollar per bale. Now, on a tract of 1,000 acres, producing 500 bales, we have a saving of \$500, or 50 cents on each acre, to say nothing of saving in return freights, travel, &c. Fifty cents is the interest on \$10. But this, gentlemen, shows nothing like the truth, as all experience proves. Proximity to market, and the capacity to take advantage of all its phases, convenience of access to the world,

the general comforts and safety of rail-roads, the new lands which they bring into cultivation, and the enhanced demand for interior products of every description which they induce, even down to the smallest ones of the dairy and the farm-yard—all, taken together, swell the increase in the value of land, near to which a rail-road passes, from \$5 to \$10, and in favored spots even \$20 an acre.

Take the case of a rail-road running through one of your counties, Davison for example, thirty miles long, having cost \$15,000 the mile, \$450,000, and suppose the lands on each side for fifteen miles back to be raised in value but \$1 30 per acre, you have the whole of the investment at once returned back to the county the moment the road is finished. Will not the increase be double this?—to say nothing of the ordinary dividends on roads, which are seldom less than the usual per centage on capital and industry.

If nothing more were said, would not the argument be irresistible?

I quote from an able speech from Mr. Segar, in the legislature of Virginia.

[We omit the extract from want of space.]

I take the position that there is not in the world an interest more promising at this moment than that of rail-roads. In England they are paying an average dividend of $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the present value of shares, being much more than the average interest of money. In the United States, the average profit is stated by the Rail-road Journal at 5 per cent. I know it will be said there has been a depreciation in the value of rail-road stocks in both countries, and that in England hundreds of millions have been lost. I admit it; but can human prudence guard against occasional extravagances in every branch of affairs, particularly in novel ones? Where the touchstone of experience cannot be supplied, profligacy and recklessness will result. But this period has gone by; and it is, in one sense, fortunate for us that we begin with all the experience which it has cost the world hundreds of millions to acquire. If these occasional disasters in rail-roads be made anything of, let us ask in what department of business have there been fewer disasters? Certainly not in *commerce*, for, gentlemen, in the item of banks alone, this country lost in ten years \$150,000,000; certainly not in *manufactures*, for we know that this interest continually fluctuates, and that large capitals are often sunk in a few years; not even in *agriculture*, for you will all remember the shipwreck which came upon the planters after the bursting of the banking bubble in 1837. The Massachusetts and the Georgia rail-roads are now paying 8 per cent., and in many cases 10 and 12. The Georgia rail-road, from Atlanta to Augusta, paid 6 per cent. in the first six months from the time of its completion; and in 1847, 10 per cent. on a capital of \$2,200,000. The Baltimore and Ohio road, on a cost of \$50,000 per mile, pays $6\frac{1}{2}$ cents; and would, unfinished as it is, says Mr. Segar, pay much more, but that it is compelled to take up much of the original superstructure.

But, gentlemen, as I said before, money dividends are but a small part of the value of rail-roads; and I trust you will forgive me for reading

some extracts, which I think will convince your minds, if a solitary doubt still remains upon them.

[We omit these extracts, the facts being established in numerous articles in the Review, particularly the elaborate one on rail-roads, we published in August, 1851.]

Well, gentlemen, if rail-roads produce all these results, can you justify yourselves to yourselves and your country, in remaining without them? You cannot, and I think you acknowledge it. What then is to be done, and where are you to begin?

I take the position, that it is the first duty of the state to lead off, and that she as much owes this to her people as she does the duty of protecting their lives and their property, or any other act of government. In all history, government has been held bound to construct and keep up the public highways of the country. We are all familiar with the magnificent highways of old Rome; the ruins of which give us no meagre idea of the magnificence of that ancient empire. The principle is, that communication should be left open and free, and that the people, with their products, should pass easily and economically where they list; and that this is the duty of government. Now, in the progress of science and civilization, it has been discovered that the old sixty-foot road cut through the woods is not such a speedy and free and cheap mode of communication as is adequate to the wants of a people, who are advancing in the modern ratio of civilization and improvement. Is the government then doing its duty when it adheres to these roads? Should not government be progressive, and keep pace with the wants of the people? If they ask bread, should it give them a stone? In its construction of roads, government should avail itself of all the improvements of the age. The most economical and best road, upon the whole, should be adopted; be this clay road, McAdam road, or turnpike. You have admitted the argument in regard to turnpikes. Does it change the principle to go a step further? Your turnpike grades only solidifies the roads, at large expense, to prepare them for the ordinary vehicles of travel. These vehicles are getting out of popular use, and are being substituted by a different class, which require a different description of road, to wit: a road of parallel sills, with iron bars, to resist the friction, instead of rocks and gravel. Now, gentlemen, if all the world is adopting this description of road, and if the old highways are clumsy and expensive, and behind the times, it is a perfect mockery to say that government must adhere to them, and is doing its duty in going no further. The rail-road is nothing but the common road made *perfect*. The cars, the engines, etc., and the working of them, are a different matter, and these may be left to individuals as we now leave them to work their own carriages and wagons. Hence I interpret the duty of government, in keeping up its roads, to mean simply this: that the roads should be adequate to the requirements of the kind of vehicle most preferred and used, whether it be carriage, wagon, or rail-road car. To accommodate solely and provide solely for one class of vehicles, and that the meanest and the worst,

would be to retain the old trial by battle, the fictions of John Doe and Richard Roe, or any other of the legal caprices of our respectable ancestors. But if this argument in favor of government's building rail-roads be not granted, let us suppose, for some reason or other—say, from inundations, it became entirely impossible to use the common roads or turnpikes at any time for travel, would government be entirely exonerated from the duty of giving the people outlet and communication? Is it not practically impossible now for the people to use the ordinary highways, and compete in industry and progress with their neighbors all over the world?

Yet, I would not stretch the argument so far as to say, that government should exclusively construct the rail-roads of the country; nor do I pretend to advocate the policy of grading and laying down the track and the iron at public expense, though my parallel may have carried me thus far. I am in favor of leaving everything possible to individual enterprise, because I believe individuals can operate with more success and economy. If individual enterprise were adequate to the construction of rail-roads, I should be willing to leave the matter there; but as it is not, and as it is conceded that the federal government has no power, the *necessity* devolves upon the states. I say individual enterprise is *not* adequate. It has not been found so in communities where dense population and advanced industry have generated enormous surplus capital;—how much less must it be adequate in the sparse population and meagre savings of a country like the Southwest? Massachusetts, for example, has granted state aid to her roads to the extent of \$5,500,000; Georgia, \$3,500,000; Virginia, three-fifths to all roads; Michigan, \$6,000,000; North Carolina, which we had thought fast asleep, \$2,000,000 to a single road. In no state have rail-roads succeeded without some such aid, and where they have been extensively adopted, this state aid has been the great impulse. Without it, few of these brilliant results would have been achieved. Without it, we, in particular, should linger along for a generation in effecting what others have done in four or five years. We have no time to lose. Every day increases the distance between ourselves and our enterprising neighbors, and makes the contest between us a more hopeless one.

You are aware, gentlemen, that the State of New-York has outstretched her hands to the extent of millions in aid of her public works, and that she is reaping the fruits in ten thousand ways. They have already repaid their cost over and over in the enhancement of property and in dividends. In a few years the revenue of these works will free the people of that state forever from taxation. A single act of legislation there has appropriated \$12,000,000 for the enlargement of the Erie Canal.

Pennsylvania, it was thought, had bankrupted herself by her enormous debt contracted for internal improvements. Her example of repudiation was pointed to as a striking example of the impolicy of large state aid to rail-roads. But what is the fact in Pennsylvania? Is she not infinitely richer from her public works? Has she not redeemed her honor, and do not these works already enable her to

maintain her engagements promptly? In one of our Southern states we have had repudiation, and that *without* rail-roads; and without *this* element of wealth it will continue to be repudiation in that state. Gentlemen, with all the liberal appropriations by states in aid of rail-roads, I know of no instance in which the public weal or credit has permanently suffered. I defy a single example. Where large and unproductive debts have been created it has not been for this purpose. It has been for banks which add nothing permanent to wealth, and in passing away leave no traces behind them. A rail-road is an addition to the wealth of the community—it is so much value that stands there and cannot be destroyed; and a state might as soon expect to bankrupt herself by such investments, judiciously made, as a vender of patent medicines bankrupt himself by extravagant expenditures in advertisements.

The safe and sound rule is for the legislature to meet individual enterprise half way in the matter of rail-roads, and stimulate it onward by liberal grants. For example, let the policy be a permanent one: that whenever a company has paid in its stock and completed its grading and its woodwork, and is ready for the iron, that the state will furnish this iron, by endorsing the bonds of the company. These bonds will then be readily negotiable. It will not be creating a state debt,—for who can doubt that the roads will be able to pay promptly the interest on the bonds? If the rail-road pays a dividend of but two to three per cent. per annum, (and what rail-road in the United States is not paying twice as much?) it can redeem these outstanding bonds, which will amount to only one-third or one-half of the whole capital of the road; or if we take the almost impossible case that the company cannot keep down the interest, the state has its lien upon all its works, and can, of course, sell out and reimburse herself at any moment; and what road will not sell for more than the cost of the iron?

This system will work well, for it may properly be left to private enterprise to select its routes, and there is no danger that these will be too numerous. Men are generally wide awake to their own interest; and in this enlightened period, when there is so much knowledge and experience abroad in regard to rail-roads, errors can hardly happen. Routes that are not demanded or likely to be profitable, will scarcely secure the investments of shrewd and calculating capitalists. But even if the state were to sink some of her capital in this manner, and incur some permanent public debt, in what more glorious cause could it be done? States are ever ready to bankrupt themselves with debt for fleets, and armies, and wars. Ours is a measure of peace; and whatever permanent debt, be it remembered, that it brings, it brings at the same time, in the increase in the value of every description of property, the *tax-paying fund to meet this debt*.

Gentlemen, it is high time that the South and the West should do something to gain a position in this confederacy which is not dependent and degrading. We must seek for some more profitable investments of our capital than those we have relied upon in the past. Why are we for ever nerveless, in debt, and without surplus for any

purpose, and must run off to the North whenever we would procure a little capital to work a mill site or dam a river? We invest nearly everything in a staple which is forever at one extreme or the other. We are offered large prices when we have none to sell; but when our warehouses are laden with it, we can find nobody willing to buy.

The construction of a system of rail-roads at the South, in addition to its other advantages, will have this: that it will divert a large slave force into more profitable channels than agriculture. The planters will find inducements to employ a portion of their force in all the works of grading, embankments, cutting timber and fuel, bridging, etc. Indeed, by the employment almost of the surplus labor of the plantations, rail-roads might in many cases be constructed, being thus almost a clear gain to the wealth of the country. We already find these *work* subscriptions, as they are called, have become popular in the South.

But not only will this division of labor occur, which will be very great, but the construction of rail-roads, in leading to the development of the mineral resources of a country; in giving them an outlet and in promoting manufactures; in securing them an expeditious and safe access to market,—for this has been the result everywhere, gentlemen, throughout Pennsylvania, New-York and New-England—the construction of rail-roads will lead to other diversions of labor and capital, which must be greatly beneficial to the South; and we cannot hope to bring about these diversions by any other means.

Upon whom are we dependent for our manufacturing necessities?—the shoes on our feet, the hat on our head, the cloth in our coat, the very shirt that we wear, down to the very pin and button that fastens it?—answer, the North: a people, many of whom have been hostile to us in interest and in feeling—who have estimated our connection by the dollars that it would bring them—who have excommunicated us as slaveholders at the sacred altar, and with pharisaical cant thanked God they were not like us poor publicans,—a people who have enticed away our slaves, mobbed us when we have attempted to reclaim them, and, like the hard Egyptian task-masters, continued to exact the tale of brick after they have taken away from us the straw with which we could make it; for, gentlemen, the North realizes out of our cotton fields as much as we do ourselves, and, in the manufacturing which she conducts for us, makes a clear annual profit of over \$40,000,000 per annum.

But when we come to commerce—that commerce which has made the North great and powerful—how much of it is the result of Southern labor? The whole carrying trade of your products and the return cargoes are entirely in their hands, bringing them a profit of their own showing of \$40,000,000 more per annum. And this, too, gentlemen, when, before the Revolution and before our present government, the Southern colonies, with a less population than New-England, New-York and Pennsylvania, exported abroad *directly* nearly five times as much produce. In the same period, Carolina and Georgia exported twice the value of New-York, Pennsylvania and

New-England. In the years from 1821 to 1830, New-York alone exceeded these states.

Here, then, are eighty millions of dollars taken annually from us, and which legitimately should have been retained in our midst, and which will yet be retained here, if we are true to ourselves.

But this is not all; how much more does the North receive from us annually in the support of her schools and her colleges, her editors, her authors and her clergy, her Saratogas and her Newports, her allurements of various kinds?—and more than all, how much do her citizens, who come among us to gather wealth, return home with, to build up those colossal interests there which are the wonders of the world? Is there any reciprocity, sirs? Who of the North “reads a Southern book”—they have said this themselves sneeringly—who visits a Southern watering-place—attends a Southern college? I think it would be safe to estimate the amount which is lost to us annually by our vassalage to the North at \$100,000,000. Great God! does Ireland sustain a more degrading relation to Great Britain? Will we not throw off this humiliating dependence, and act for ourselves? What a country would be the South, could we retain this money at home—what ships and navies we should have—what dense metropolitan and magnificent cities—what manufacturing establishments, making every hill and valley vocal with the whirl of machinery—what rail-roads, radiating to every village and town, like the arteries from the human heart—what mineral resources developed—what watering-places, crowded with wealth and fashion and beauty—what schools and colleges, in which our sons should be reared to fidelity to their native South—what dense population—what wealth and what power!—and yet we are now poor and scattered, and in this isolation and dependence of our condition, afraid almost of our very shadows upon the wall.

Throw off this yoke of bondage, and begin to show your manhood at once. We are poor and miserable, whereas we should be great. In a question between the North and South, I prefer the South. Charity begins at home. Not that I love Cæsar less, but Rome more. Whatever divisions exist in Southern politics, there can be none upon this of *Southern Industrial Independence*. Fire-eater and compromiser must all meet here, unless they go beyond Scripture, and love others *better* than themselves. Here is a separate state action upon which all must agree—that of loom, and spindle, and locomotive. This is the extent of my “fire-eating.” “If it be *treason*, make the most of it!”

“Let us then be up and doing
With a heart for every fate,
Still resolving, still pursuing,
Learn to *labor* and to wait.”

Gentlemen, I am among you as a delegate from New-Orleans, to speak to you upon this subject of rail-roads, and invoke your action with hers. I wish I had more power of popular oratory to speak to you and to rouse you into action; but what little reputation I have,

has been acquired in a different field, and one in which I hope I have been able to do the South some service. I have never once faltered in that field, and I trust in God I never shall in any time of trial and of difficulty.

In every period of your history, gentlemen, New-Orleans has been your commercial centre—your outlet to the markets of the world. You are as familiar with its high-ways and its by-ways as we are ourselves—its places of fashionable resort and amusement. Why, almost every other man we meet in our streets in the winter season, is a Tennessean, and half the witching beauty and loveliness of the female form, which makes Chartres-street a very eastern bazaar, traces its origin to Tennessee. When New-Orleans was in the hands of the Spanish and the French, you vowed, by all the powers, she should be yours, and you got her. When New-Orleans was menaced by an insulting foe, whose watch-word was booty and beauty, the glorious chief of the Hermitage swore "by the Eternal," she should not be taken, and you saved her. Tennessee and Louisiana have ever been linked together; and whom God and your rifles have put together, let no man put asunder. We intend, gentlemen, to preserve this relationship to you. We intend that you shall not go off to the sea-board, to Charleston, Savannah or Richmond, or anywhere else, but shall stand by us, and we will stand by you, and our growth and our power shall be together. You may set that down as a fact, do what you please. If you will not come to us, we will come to you. "Mahomet will come to the mountain," &c., &c. Gentlemen, let me give you a history of New-Orleans. In her infancy she bid fair to be a very colossus, and to outstride, in her march to commercial greatness, almost every other mart upon the continent, making of herself another Tyre, or Sidon, or Venice, of whom it has been said in poetry—

"The trade and commerce of the city
Consisteth of *all* nations."

New-Orleans has suffered herself to sleep soundly in the arms of all the prosperity which the God of nature seemed to have showered upon her. Like Achilles of old, she conceived that a Deity had lent her armor, and, as the pet child of destiny, she must be for ever invulnerable. Bewildered in her dreams of eastern magnificence and rank, as she contemplated herself at the very foot and receptacle of all the greatest and most magnificent rivers upon earth, which rippled in their distant sources among the mighty gorges of the Rocky Mountains,

—"Where rolls the Oregon,
And hears no sound, save its own dashings"—

with fifteen great states of the confederacy claimed to be inalienably tributary to her, and as many more, perhaps, in embryo; with a position which looks out upon the beautiful and glowing islands of the gulf, now cursed by tyranny, and where one of the darkest tragedies of the present century has been lately enacted;

and looking over equatorial climes, traces the magnificent, yet undeveloped empires of South America—the connecting link between two great continents, with almost the control of that isthmus-connection, over which it has been fondly conceived the rich commerce of Eastern climes might be diverted—New-Orleans, like a pet child of destiny, laughed the doubter into scorn, and said unto herself, “Go to—let us take our rest—eat, drink and be merry;” and who shall gainsay us? Let the waves beat; we are upon the everlasting rocks, against which their fury shall be expended in vain. We shall tithe and tax, and levy contributions upon the world, as we hold the keys of so much of its wealth! Shall we delve and spin, who are Nature’s great custom-house officers, administering her tariffs and her revenues? Away with your fears and your admonitions;

“We care not, fortune, what you us deny,
You cannot rob us of free nature’s grace,—
You cannot shut the windows of the sky.”

This was New-Orleans; but what is New-Orleans now? Where are her dreams of greatness and of glory? Where her untold wealth in embryo? Whilst she slept, an enemy has sowed tares in her most prolific fields. Armed with energy, enterprise, and an indomitable spirit, that enemy, by a system of bold, vigorous and sustained efforts, has succeeded in reversing the very laws of nature and of nature’s God—rolled back the mighty tide of the Mississippi and its ten thousand tributary streams, until their mouth, practically and commercially, is more at New-York and Boston than at New-Orleans. Thus have the fates mocked and deceived us in promising rank and greatness so long as the mouth of the great rivers should remain at our doors! Well might we exclaim, in the language of Macbeth to the Weird Sisters—

“Accursed be the fiends
That palter with us in a double sense,
That keep the word of promise to the ear,
But break it to the hope!”

New-Orleans is now the prodigal son, who has wasted his substance in riotous living. She has come to herself. Her conversion has been sudden and little less than miraculous. What the shock of all the North could not effect, came almost from her very doors. It was to be expected the North would steal from us: thrift belongs to them; but to think of the presumption of a little neighbor, whom we had a long time been intending to extinguish, some convenient day, in our *overwhelming greatness*—MOBILE—to think of Mobile coming in for a share of spoils, and boasting that, by a rail-road, she could strike at our last fortress, and leave us so poor that none might do us reverence, by emptying the Ohio and the Tennessee into her basin.

Gentlemen, though I honor and respect the energy and spirit of Mobile, this was the unkindest cut of all, and it has roused the dormant energies of New-Orleans. Her citizens stand to their arms, and they invoke you to stand by them. They have determined to intercept their trade, which is about stealing off to Mobile and Charles-

ton, and bring back much that has already gone to the North. They have revived the road they projected to your capital, and actually commenced 15 years ago, and would strike entirely through your state for the Ohio River.

Gentlemen, these new roads are commenced under bright auspices. All the capital and enterprise of Louisiana and of New-Orleans are pledged to the completion of the road to Jackson, in the State of Mississippi. Already the company is formed, and the engineers are in the field. Louisiana will complete this road, and that within a few short years. Mississippi has resolved that the work shall not be stopped there: her citizens are meeting in county assemblages and general conventions, and pledge themselves to go on with it. I have just returned from a tour entirely through the state, and found the rail-road fever only a little less than the political. The planters are out of debt, and have the means to subscribe largely, and the state has a large surplus in her treasury, which she will appropriate. There are two great routes advocated, in addition to the Mobile and Ohio road, which passes through the state, both of which project from the neighborhood of her capital. One of them takes the direction of her north-eastern counties, and will strike the Tennessee River at some point, which shall intersect with the road you are proposing from Nashville to that point. The other road will extend due north, enter your state, and strike for Jackson, in Madison county, to intersect there with the Mobile and Ohio road, and proceed on a common track thence to the Ohio River, opposite Cairo, where the Illinois Central Rail-road will then make the rail-road connection complete and almost unbroken, from the gulf of Mexico to the Great Lakes. Should an intersection not be practicable with the Mobile and Ohio road, the New-Orleans road will then take a due northerly course, through the counties of Fayette, Heywood, Gibson and Weekly, in Tennessee, to the Kentucky line.

It is in behalf of these improvements I am here to speak to you. Gentlemen, extend them a ready help. The subject is high above all local considerations and rivalries. They are magnificent works. You cannot be content with a connection with Charleston and with Louisville. These roads will throw you at once upon the Atlantic and the gulf, upon the Great Lakes and the mighty North-west. This is your destiny. You will be in the heart of the world. Your beautiful capital shall become the Athens, as New-Orleans will be the Carthage or the Rome, of the Western Valley!

Gentlemen, the people of New-Orleans propose to hold, on the first Monday in January next, a great convention in that city of the people of all the Southern and South-western states, for the purpose of concentrating the strength and energy of them all upon a system of rail-roads, which shall radiate through all our limits, and raise us to a level in this particular with the North. A committee was appointed to prepare and issue an address to the people, a copy of which I hold in my hand, and to visit the states and legislatures for the purpose of addressing them. I have the honor to be included in that committee. We invite you to this convention, and trust that

you will be represented by your most enlightened and enterprising citizens. Such men coming together from every part of this wide region, must exercise hereafter a great influence upon public opinion. Much valuable information will be elicited, and great practical results follow. Such conventions have ever been found powerful means of advancing great causes. They are the great engines of popular action. It was but the other day a Southern Merchants' Convention assembled in Richmond. Several great internal improvement conventions have been held at Memphis, St. Louis, and Chicago. The extreme South-west has never moved until now, and what point could be more interesting and important for the meeting of this great rail-road convention than New-Orleans. And indeed, gentlemen, if there was wanting other considerations to induce the people of the South-west to enter upon the construction of a system of rail-roads, extending through every part of their limits, it would be easy to find them in the peculiar position which they sustain with relation to the rest of the world. They have an interest in each others' prosperity, founded upon common hopes, and fears, and dangers. Menaced, as they are, from so many quarters, it becomes them, in every possible way, to strengthen themselves *at home*. The interests of Mobile, New-Orleans, Charleston, or Savannah, in each others' advancement, are stronger than their interest in the advancement of Boston or New-York. These interests should preclude all jealousies and rivalries, and induce a generous co-operation in every instance where the benefit of the whole South is at issue. Such a course cannot be in conflict with the individual interests of any. By opening or creating new avenues of trade and production, and extending our operations at home and abroad, it is possible for these cities, and all others in our midst, to go on enlarging, and increasing, and extending their influences, without at all affecting the progress of each other. In so wide a field there will be room for all. The progress of Boston has *not* destroyed New-York, but has rather diverted her energies into new and profitable channels. It was an idea of the Middle Ages, as barbarous as it was false, that one community could only advance at the expense of another. The benefits of trade are reciprocal. Light up the torches of industry at home, said Benjamin Franklin to his countrymen, on finding that all hope from British tyranny had fled. This shall be our salvation. We shall be feared and respected in proportion as we are strong and powerful. We shall demand and receive our rights, and not entreat and compromise for them, as we are often forced to do.

It may be an unwelcome truth, but we cannot disguise it—the institutions, and, of course, the very existence of the South, are in constant danger. The hands of all mankind seem to be against us. All the great powers of Europe menace our institutions. If we had made our peace *forever* with the North, looking into the distant future, the danger is still pressing and great. We want *physical* strength, the sinews of defences and war. These will come from *diversified* industry. It was this that enabled Britain to resist the shock of Napoleon, and of all the world. *She was the workshop of the world!*

There is no hope for the South but in this. She cannot recede. She must fight *for* her slaves or *against* them. Even cowardice would not save her. One of Homer's heroes thought that cowardice would be justified if men might live for ever; but even in that deep shall we not find a greater deep still opening to devour? Let us do our parts like men, and the consequences will be controlled by God.

I am not afraid of the South and of slave institutions. All spirit has not yet died. In the best periods of the history of the country the South was the controlling power. Her enterprise "is not dead, but sleepeth." I cannot forget the early commercial history of the South—I cannot forget that she had at one time the largest rail-road in the world, or that one of her citizens, Stephen Elliott, was the first to project a great rail-road connection from the Atlantic to the Mississippi valley. One of her citizens died in the service of this work. Many of you recollect the visit of Robert Y. Hayne to your capital, and the burning eloquence with which he spoke to you upon this subject. Yes, gentlemen, the South and *slave institutions* have, in all the brightest periods of history, enacted the highest parts in the drama. The Roman slaveholder carried the eagle and the legions to the end of the earth, and made Italy the theatre of the world's glory. The Greek slaveholder penetrated almost to the frosty Caucasus—

"Shook the ars'nel,
And fulmined over Greece
To Macedon, to Artaxerxes' throne."

All the civilization, arts, sciences, literature, laws, everything that was glorious and great in ancient times, sprung from the *southern* states of Greece and Rome, and the southern slaveholders, whilst the Seythian and Scandinavian barbarians of the north dwelt beneath the earth in their mountain fastnesses. When our own continent was discovered, it was only in the South, in Peru, and in Mexico, that any civilization or arts were discovered. May it not—and it will not, if we are true to ourselves—happen again that southern civilization shall be overthrown and crushed out, and trampled under foot, by the powers which shall be brought against it?

I will detain you but a little longer, and that will be with my legitimate subject of rail-roads. When Mr. Stephenson, of England, in 1832, was advocating the Manchester line, they laughed at his idea that an eventual speed of twelve miles an hour might be attained. Soon after, the London Quarterly made infinite sport of the proposition that eighteen or twenty miles could be reached. We should as soon expect, it said, the people of Woolwich to suffer themselves to be fired upon by one of Congreve's ricochet rockets, as trust themselves to the mercy of such a machine, going at such a rate. In the present year, upon the Great Western Road in England, an average speed of forty-eight miles per hour has been attained without stoppages; and we learn that, for a short distance, over seventy miles has been reached; and that scientific man, Dr. Lardner, would not fix the practical limit at short of two hundred miles an hour! A member of Parliament declared, in opposition to the

Manchester Road, that a rail-road could not enter into competition with a canal. Even with the best locomotive the average rate would be $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles per hour; which was slower than the canal conveyance. The Buffalo and Albany Road runs side by side with the great canal of New-York, a distance of 350 miles, and has conducted such extraordinary freights and travel, that it has been found necessary to build another parallel road of greater length, from Dunkirk to the city of New-York. The Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road transports coal and iron at $1\frac{1}{2}$ cents per ton, which is as low as the canals, or, all things considered, as freights on western rivers. When Mr. Clinton was advocating the Erie Canal, a member of the legislature asked, inquiringly, where the water was to come from to fill up this great ditch—"You need give yourself no uneasiness," said another; "the tears of the people will fill it." And yet rail-roads are in their infancy; for only twenty-two years ago there was not in our broad land a single locomotive engine, says the Rail-Road Journal, in successful operation. In this period, freight and travel upon them have cheapened one-half to two-thirds. Cheaper modes of construction and management are adopted; and if, in the next twenty years, anything like the same progress takes place, river navigation will be entirely abandoned, even for the heaviest and least valuable products; the old father of waters will become, as some one has said, useful only to water cattle. Time is everything—it is money. Who will use even your magnificent floating palaces, which keep you seven to ten days in the passage to New-Orleans, when, on the wings of the locomotive, at as cheap an expense, (for this can be done for \$15,) in thirty-six hours you may light upon that gay metropolis, transact your business, and be comfortably again on the way home? This, too, without danger. Why, gentlemen, your floating palaces are but floating *Ætnas*. You sleep upon the crater which is belching forth the elements of dismay and death, and which, in a single instant, may hurl you and yours into eternity. The mortality of western steamers is frightful. You were as safe among the cannon of Buena Vista. On the northern rail-roads not one passenger in a million is killed—on the English, not one in five millions—on the German, not one in twenty millions; whilst on the western rivers, the average killed will almost be *one in every two thousand!* I would almost take the bold ground, that more persons have been destroyed in the last five years, from steamboat accidents of every sort in the west, than have been destroyed on all the rail-roads in the world from their first beginning up to the present moment.

Glorious, then, have been the results of this age of rail-road improvement. In the period of only twenty years, nearly three thousand millions of dollars have been expended in the world in their construction—a sum twice as great as the value of the whole slave population of all the Southern states together. The annual savings from industry, which it required to do this, amounts to \$140,000,000—equal to the whole foreign export nearly of all the productions and wealth of our republic.

Gentlemen, if we were to add together all of these great works,

and stretch them forward in a continuous line, it would have a length of 26,485 miles—more than sufficient to belt this great globe. What a glorious triumph is here of human art and industry! You have heard of the tap of the British drum being answered from British fortification to British fortification round the world—of the Spanish empire on which the sun never set,—of the car of progress, rolling onward through the world, carrying with it all nations and people. Here we have a more glorious realization than either. Stretch out the links of your magnificent railways. Start the locomotive. Vulcan has seized, as it were, the reins of the chariot of the sun, imitating the daring rashness of Phaeton of old. The blazing, burning, and restive steeds prance furious onward on their course—onward, and onward—yet in the check and control of the master charioteer. A speck upon the horizon, it roars and rushes on to become a speck upon the opposite horizon. All nations, tongues, and kindreds, look on and wonder, but the car rushes on with terrible and resistless energy. Thus, around and around this great globe revolves the “car of progress,” carrying with it light, and life, and civilization—warming up and animating the countless millions like the god of day himself in his eternal orbit. This, gentlemen, is the result of *human* skill, and enterprise, and energy! Truly, may we exclaim in the language of Scripture, “God made man perfect, but they have sought out many inventions;” and I trust there will be no show of irreverence when I say of him, he has seized upon one of the attributes of Deity in this, that “he maketh the earth his footstool, and walks upon the wings of the wind.”

ART. V.—NEGRO-MANIA.*

THIS is too useful a work to be lightly passed over with the short notice we gave it in our December number. A most valuable compilation it is on the subject of the races; a work of which it would be difficult to show all the merits in a review, for almost every line and word of it deserves to be paused upon. It is itself a review of, and selection from, sundry distinguished authors, who have boldly dared to face the storm of fanaticism, and in spite of the almost universal prejudice of the world, to roll back its tide of error, and with the godlike power of intellect to pronounce the almighty fiat, “Thus far, and no farther!” Some names unknown to science are introduced, to prove by arguments of common sense the necessity of those relations which science shows to be inevitable.

The author of this compilation makes no pretence to originality, but his work is not therefore the less meritorious, and perhaps it is even the more useful, as he has in many of his authorities given such

* NEGRO-MANIA: being an examination of the falsely assumed equality of the various races of men. By John Campbell. Philadelphia: Campbell & Power. Octavo, pp. 549.

names as only the grossest ignorance can refuse to bow to. A collection of judicious selections, judiciously commented upon, forms in itself a volume of infinite value; and while we disclaim the ability of laying before the public, in a short review, all its merits, we are anxious, as far as we can, to draw popular attention to it. The aim of our author is to *popularize* his subject, to make attainable to the every-day reader the results of learned investigation, and to let every man find within his reach a compendium of such authorities as he often could not afford to purchase, or may not have leisure to study in full. Most warmly do we wish him success in his experiment, and most heartily recommend his work to all. It is time that the subject should be investigated in all its bearings.

Among the authors cited by Mr. Campbell, we find advocates both for the unity and the diversity of man's origin. Prichard, &c. have been boldly quoted, while Morton, Lawrence, Knox, Smith, Browne, Gliddon, &c. are called upon, and most triumphantly, to prove the fallacy of their conclusions. Many strong names which the author might have summoned on his own side of the question, he has (partly perhaps from superabundant material) left aside. From among ourselves, Nott—no mean authority—should perhaps not have been entirely forgotten; but such oblivion may well be pardoned in consideration of what he *has* given us, and he has from a very proper motive drawn his resources less from Southern men, than from Englishmen and Northerners, among whom certainly no one can look for any weakness or bias towards our Southern institutions, in the decision of a question which is of such vital importance to us. It is singular, however, that the great Agassiz should not have been named by him. The opinions of Mr. Agassiz upon this subject are well known, and it shows the richness of material—the overwhelming mass of proof, that such a supporter could be dispensed with.

Our author enters only incidentally upon the question of the origin of the races, and rather turns the force of his argument to prove their inequality. The races exist, and exist with different powers, different instincts, and different capacities. These differences are inalienable and unchangeable. Such are, in few words, the propositions of his argument, and every authority quoted (even that of Prichard, the principal upholder of the unity theory,) tends to confirm this position. Whenever and however men have appeared upon this earth, (we, in common with our author, consider the diversity of origin proved beyond dispute,) here they now are—unlike in all things—with the marks of race stamped ineffaceably upon them, in body and in mind; in form, color, instinct and reason—differing in all, and having differed, as is most indisputably proved by historical monuments for four thousand years, and by every philosophical deduction must continue so to differ. Man's handiwork will scarce bring about a revolution in despite, as Carlyle would say, "of the immortal gods." Should he try to force it, forgetting the necessary conditions of his existence, "which Nature and the Eternal Powers have by no manner of means forgotten, but do, at all moments, keep in mind, these, they will at the right moment, with due impres-

siveness, perhaps in rather a terrible manner, bring again to our mind also."

The highest capacity of man, and its noblest use, is the discovery and execution of the Almighty behests,—thus enabling him to second instead of opposing the beautiful order of God's developed thought in creation. If the negro be an inferior man, the struggle against God's will, which aims at putting him upon the same footing as the superior, is only not an impious work, in so far as it is a blind and a foolish one. Folly, unfortunately, often leads to consequences fatal as vice, and there is nothing more mischievous than active ignorance. In the fanaticism which now actually desolates some of the most favored and beautiful parts of our globe, threatening others even at the risk of dragging to earth the high-reared monuments of man's civilization, we find vicious malevolence and ignorance combining their power to raise some higher law than any which God has sanctioned; and because the black man cannot reach the level of the white, they would even drag down and degrade the white to *his* capacities.

Can it be that in an age when science walks abroad, astonishing the world by a progress hitherto unequaled in her annals—when no longer, with snail-like advance, she labors the ascent to knowledge, but rather leaps forward to her magnificent conclusions—when she girdles the world with steam, and flashes her lightning thought, even with lightning speed, through the expanse of a continent—when we see her votaries, (in the eloquent language of Professor Lieber,) "like priests of nature, revealing her great mysteries and showing thought,—one thought,—the thought of God, pervading the universe and its phases"—Oh! can it be that this is to be swept aside, or rather crushed down to the level of a Haytien civilization? Can it be, that the great *one thought*, that *thought of God*, so beautifully pictured out even in the lowest, as in the highest of his works, is to be tinkered at and defaced, patched and plastered, by a set of mad-men, whose one idea seems to be built upon some whining, Wilberforcian, Clarksonized wail of "black brethren" and "negro improvement?" Verily, nature "suffereth long and is kind," or, ere this, had her curse fallen upon us. We struggle against her, we fiercely resist her teachings, and fancy that these poor heads of ours—to say nothing of black Sambo's and Cuffee's—can regulate matters by a higher law than hers. But the time cometh when our probation can last no longer. Then, and in "rather a terrible manner," it is to be feared, we will receive our lesson! Is it not even now, alas, beginning? What is this cry over Europe, echoing even to our own shores? What means this darkly-shadowed caricature of good—this horrible disfigurement of Christian charity—which, but that it stalks in terrible reality before us, would seem like the mockery of some fearful dream? The angel form which we have gazed upon and worshiped as Christian charity and brotherly love, now suddenly starts forth, grinning upon us in hideous deformity of vice, and gibbering out its horrible obscenities of "socialism" and "communism," drags along upon its track the shouting mob, who, in

their ravings for "negro abolition" and "universal equality," trample under foot at once God's law and man's law—virtue and decency. The demon is unchained. This wide-spread and wider-spreading evil figures forth, not badly, the beast of the Apocalypse, unto whom "was given a mouth speaking great things and blasphemies;" "and he opened his mouth in blasphemy against God to blaspheme his name," "and power was given him over all kindreds, and tongues, and nations."

The strength of this hideous power is now interesting itself largely in the negro cause; and because the innovators find the impossibility of putting into execution their crude theories among their white brethren, and more nearly equalized population, they, in their agony for action, look about for something tangible, something less impossible, and fancy that it is found in the abolition of negro slavery. Alas! for the mistaken folly of those who, in thus acting, act sincerely. Their well-meaning and officious ignorance is pushed on by the powerful lever of fanaticism to ends from which they would shrink in affright could they see them in full development; but which, in half-way execution, they rejoice over, as the poor idiot gazes in delighted wonder and warms his fingers by the blaze which is demolishing his dwelling, fancying the while that he has done a wise thing in the application of the spark which has lighted to their destruction his own and his neighbors' homes.

Alas for their folly! But wo! wo! a wo of darkness and of death! a wo of hell and of perdition to those who, better knowing, goad folly on to such an extreme! This is indeed the sin not to be forgiven; the sin against the Holy Ghost and against the spirit of God. The beautiful order of Creation, breathed down from Almighty intelligence, is to be moulded and wrought by fanatic intelligence! until dragged down at last to negro intelligence!!

The Almighty has thought well to place certain of his creatures in certain fixed positions in this world of ours, for what cause he has not seen fit to make quite clear to our limited capacities; and why an ass is not a man, or a man an ass, will probably forever remain a mystery to our limited intellects. One thing, however, he has in his mercy made clear enough, viz., that by no manner of education; no stocks, braces, nor regimental drillings; no problems, theories, nor definitions; neither by steam nor by telegraph—neither by mesmerism nor by chloroform, can our unfortunate brother ass, whether mentally or corporeally, be induced to consider himself as a gentleman, and act accordingly. *He*, at least, is not capable of attaining the *white* civilization of this our 19th century. We hope that our philanthropic friends will allow us this. We would fain have some sure ground to stand upon, but do not feel quite certain that they may not come with some new-fangled theory of communism to knock this platform also from under our feet. Believing, however, that (until the spirit of improvement rises a step or two higher) they will allow us our position, we would beg them to instruct us upon what principle of justice this unfortunate brother ass—this hirsute relative—should be so be-deviled and trampled upon. Why

should he not lie amidst feathers and velvet, as well as the best in the land? And why, above all, must he help work to make such feathers and velvet comfortable lodgings for his so-called betters? God-given intellect and power to attain, count for nothing in this modern system of arguing. The ass has as good a right to the possession of intellect as the man; and if God has not given it to him, we must remedy the injustice by some patent "free-and-equal" system. The process is easy enough. If the ass cannot stand on two legs, knock the man down to all fours, (nothing is simpler,) and *vive la fraternité!* Why did not the Almighty save us all this trouble, and make the ass a man, or the man an ass, from the beginning? Truly, 'tis a problem hard to solve, and poor donkey, with his lamentable braying, comes as near an explanation as all our philosophizing can do. God made the world—God gave thee there thy place, my hirsute brother; and according to all earthly probabilities and possibilities, it is thy destiny therein to remain, bray as thou wilt. From the same great power have our sable friends, Messrs. Sambo, Cuffee & Co. received their position also; with which position, allow us to remark, the worthy ancestors of Messrs. Sambo, Cuffee & Co. have continued perfectly satisfied for some four thousand years, (longer, perchance, but records go no farther,) and their descendants would, most undoubtedly, have so continued; but behold, Satan, as when

"Squat like a toad, close at the ear of Eve
Assaying by his devilish arts to reach
The organs of her fancy,"

comes now in the likeness of an "all men are born free and equal" advocate, to raise

"Vain hopes, vain aims, inordinate desires"

in poor Cuffee's hitherto quiet brain! Alas, "my poor black brother!" thou, like the hirsute, must do thy braying in vain. Where God has placed thee, there must thou stay. "You, Quashee, my pumpkin, (not a bad fellow either, this poor Quashee, when tolerably guided,) idle Quashee, I say, you must get the devil *sent away* from your elbow, my poor dark friend! In this world there will be no existence for you otherwise." To the immortals, perchance, this tempest in a tea-pot, this little hubbub on our little globe, may look trifling enough, they seeing very certainly that at the end of some score of centuries all things will go right again. Quashee will either have gone back to his quiet corner in this world's civilization, or, perchance, have vacated it forever in favor of some higher claimant. It matters little in all likelihood to the supreme spectators of this world's game, what confusion of checking and check-mating may be going on in our little ant-hill. The thought of God must conquer finally, and the score or so of centuries more or less would be but a moment in its development. But to us, my brothers, and our children, these twenty centuries, what are they? White and black, were it not well to think on this a little? Truly to us, my biped

brethren of all complexions, this abolitionist Satan is preparing (if so be we chain him not in time) a sorry chase through this world's existence. Only the hirsute can flourish then; ranging at will through beauteous regions, cast back again to wildness and the desert. There nature's bounty may furnish grass to the hirsute, but, truly, no bread to the biped. Black Quashee cannot understand this; God has not given him the intellect for it; and if we teach him to bray out for liberty, i. e., for idleness, verily it is as easy for him to bray to that tune, as to any other. But the white man! Of what is he dreaming, when he listens even for a moment to such cant? To him God *has* given intellect, (would he but use it!) to see the truth. Brother, (for if acting conscientiously, and no devil's firebrand sent by Satan to our undoing, even as a brother, although differing, we hail thee,) brother, thou speakest, perchance, in ignorance. Hast thou ever lived along side of Quashee? noticed his habits, his mind, his character, his tastes, his virtues and his vices? Clothed him in health, and nursed him in sickness? cheered him in merriment, and comforted him in sorrow? rejoiced with him, and suffered with him? laughed with him, and wept with him? Thou *hast not*; but there be those who have; "go thou and do likewise," and when (if ever) thou dost, *thou wilt cease to be an abolitionist*. The white man, whose heart truly warms to the fate of the negro, would cease to agitate this question, in that moment that he would become well acquainted with him, for thus would he learn its utter impracticability. At the hideous thought of amalgamation, even the abolitionist white-blood shudders. The white and the black race can only exist together in their present relations. Abolition is the extinction of the one or the other.

"I to herd with narrow foreheads, vacant of our glorious gains,
Like a beast with lower pleasures, like a beast with lower pains!
Mated with a squalid savage—what to me were sun or clime?
I the heir of all the ages, in the foremost files of time!"

The civilized man must retain his position, or perish.

We beg pardon of Mr. Campbell, however, whom we have, like a garrulous host, kept for a long time, hat in hand, ready to make his bow to the reader, while we, instead of remembering our duty of introducing him, have been prosing away upon his text. Mr. Campbell is, he tells us, a member of the Social Improvement Society of Philadelphia; at divers meetings of which society, "various and talented speakers," (we use Mr. C.'s words,) *white and black*, joined in the discussion of this question—"Can the colored races of men be made mentally, politically and socially equal with the white?" This is a rather startling outset; and judging from the results usually emanating from such parti-colored associations, our first impulse was to withdraw from Mr. Campbell's extended hand. Gulp-ing down the doubt, however, we boldly enlist under the motto he adopts—"Prove all things; hold fast that which is good"—and we are rewarded by finding that he honestly and manfully meets the question. Here, then, we have a collection of extracts, selected by a

northern man, who has entered freely into the discussion of the subject with minds of all hues,

"Black spirits and white, blue spirits and gray,"

enthusiast and fanatic; whose important scientific authorities are all, without exception, Englishmen or northern United States men. Surely no bias should be here expected in favor of southern United States institutions, and yet a stronger defence of them it would be difficult to find.

In answer to the question, "Can the colored races of men be made mentally, politically and socially equal with the white?" our author first states the indisputable fact, that never, from the most remote antiquity, until now, has there appeared a race of negroes, that is, "men with woolly heads, flat noses, thick and protruding lips, which has ever emerged from a state of savageism or barbarism to even a demi-civilization." "Look to the West Indies, to Brazil, to Australia, to the Gold Coast, to Zanguebar, to Congo, to Senegambia, to Ashantee, nay, to the civilization under his imperial highness Faustin the First, Emperor of Hayti, and answer me, ye Garrisons, and Phillipses, and Burleys, and Fulsoms, and Smiths, what has this race done in five thousand years?" To those who advance the argument, that the negro has never had an opportunity for development, because the white man has always oppressed him, our author says, "they forget that the latter portion of this proposition refutes the former. If the white man has always oppressed the negro, it goes to establish the fact claimed by me, that the white man is mentally superior, because, if the white man has been always powerful enough to debar the negro from improving his intellect, it establishes the complete force of my views—'that no amount of education or training can ever make the negro equal in intellect with the white;' 'knowledge is power;' and it is evident to all, that under no circumstances has the negro race ever been able to compete with the white." "We see around us, in every direction, evidences of the fact, that the negro is naturally inferior to the white; but it is unfair to institute comparisons where this race is held in bondage by the white. We will give them all the advantages of a fair examination. We will travel to that quarter of the globe which seems to be the native land of this race, and to which they appear to be indigenous. We will go where the white man has never oppressed them," and what do we find? "Monumental ruins of Dahomey, forty ages do not look down upon you! Strewn columns of Ashantee, where shall we find you? Echo answers, 'where?' Decaying towers of Zanguebar, shall any traveler ever discover your nameless and undiscovered and undiscoverable foundations? Sculptured temples of Guinea, what hierologist shall be able to decipher your extinguished hieroglyphics?" "If only one great negro name could be produced to redeem a whole race, then I will retract all I have ever said of negro inferiority,—but this one only name, this *rara avis*, this white black-bird, this phoenix, is not forthcoming; 'you cannot make a silk purse out of a sow's lug,' is an old and homely adage, but not the less true;

so can you not make anything from a negro but negroism, which means barbarism and inferiority." "Have the woolly-headed races of men ever produced one, even only one man, famous either as law-giver, statesman, poet, priest, painter, historian, orator, architect, musician, soldier, sailor, engineer, navigator, astronomer, linguist, mathematician, anatomist, chemist, physician, naturalist, or philosopher?" Not one, in the whole expanse of the world's history, for 4,000 years; and yet there are men who dare to babble of circumstance, disadvantage, oppression and universal equality. What might the negro have done, if,—and if,—and if?—What might the jackass have done, if,—and if,—and if? The proof is as fair in the one case as in the other—the same in kind, differing only in degree. As God made them, so they have been, so they are, and so they will be; the white man, the negro and the jackass, each to his kind, and each to his nature; true to the finger of destiny, (which is the finger of God,) and undeviatingly pursuing the track which that finger as undeviatingly points out. Where rebel reason in its little pride of might would try to change that track, there does the restless vehemence of disorganized nature prove its own avenger. The negro, become master, extinguishes that civilization which his nature abhors, to revel in savageism to which his instincts limit him. Philanthropy, or rather philo-donkeyism, has never yet experimented how the ass would act under similar circumstances; but we are fully authorized, from logical induction, to conclude that green grass and the wilderness would be the order of the day under his *régime*, and humanity, both black and white, would be fairly kicked out of existence. To the white man then, the philosopher, poet, orator, historian,—to him

"The heir of all the ages, in the foremost files of time,"

it matters little whether donkeyism or negroism predominate; either, to him, would be extinction.

To return to the question of inferiority of the negro, we have then, in all honest reasoning, the full right to deduce it from constant, unvarying, and unstruggling inferiority of position; and the observations of naturalists all go to confirm this position by his anatomical inferiority. Mr. Campbell quotes largely to this effect, and gives us extracts even from Dr. Prichard, acknowledging, that by a comparison with the highest of the simiæ, the chimpanzee and the orang, there is apparent, in certain parts of the skeleton, "an approach towards the forms of these latter species."* x

Lawrence, after enumerating the various points of anatomical difference, continues: "In all the particulars just enumerated, the negro structure approximates unequivocally to that of the monkey. It not only differs from the Caucasian model, but is distinguished from it in two respects: the intellectual characters are reduced, the animal features enlarged and exaggerated." Knox, of the dark races ge-

* Our quotations, let it be understood, are henceforward invariably taken at second hand from Mr. Campbell. It is our object to show what he has done, and to give his book, as far as in our power, the circulation which it so well deserves.

+ See as much as an appendix in the introduction
 The idea of freedom in the mind of the African

nerally, remarks: "The whole shape of the skeleton differs from ours; and so, also, I find, do the forms of almost every muscle of the body." Of the Hottentots, he says: "Their skeleton presents of course peculiarities; such as the extreme narrowness of the nasal bones, which run into one in early age, not unfrequently as we find in apes. But it is the exterior which is the most striking; and this, no doubt, is wonderful. No one can believe them to be of the same race with ourselves; yet, unquestionably, they belong to the genus man."

The now exploded assumption, that the ancient Egyptians were negroes, is met by Mr. Campbell with such a mass of authorities, that we must refer the reader, who is curious on the subject, to his book. One can but smile in reading them, at the idea that such an error could ever have obtained credence enough to make it worth combating. "Now that we distinguish the several human races by the bones of the head, (remarks Lawrence,) it is easy to prove, that whatever may have been the hue of their (the Egyptians) skin, they belonged to the same race with ourselves;" "that they formed no exception to that cruel law, (a cruel law! which God has made! and shall we better it?) which seems to have doomed to eternal inferiority all the tribes of our species which are unfortunate enough to have a depressed and compressed cranium." The great Cuvier had already long before pronounced, that "neither the Gallas, nor the Bosjesmen, nor any race of negroes, produced that celebrated people;" and Morton* (a name at which we bow our heads in sorrow, that so early should have been closed a life whose labors science can ill spare) gives a stream of decisive evidence on the subject. A translation of a deed on papyrus of the reign of Ptolemy, Alexander First, giving a description of the persons, parties to a sale of land at Thebes, describes one of them as of a dark complexion, the remaining five as sallow. The Egyptians themselves, on their monuments, have represented the men red, the women yellow; and both with features entirely distinct from the negro, who appears among them with all the characteristic features of his race, and always in a condition of bondage or inferiority. "Negroes (observes Morton) were numerous in Egypt, but their position in ancient times was the same that it now is, that of servants and slaves." "The hair of the Egyptians resembled in texture that of the fairest Europeans of the present day."

Equally futile and equally rejected by science, is the assumption, that climate or habit of life can account for the differences of race. "The physical or organic characters which distinguish the several races of men, are as old (says Morton) as the oldest records of our species." We frequently find one race inhabiting an extent of country which serves, at once, to prove the irrationality of the conclusion, that climate can have had any influence in stamping upon it its characteristic differences. "The flat face of the Chinese (observes Lawrence) not only extends throughout that vast empire, which covers

* It is but justice to this distinguished man to remark, that we have ourselves heard Agassiz (himself the greatest of living naturalists) say, that he was an authority inferior to none in ethnology.

nearly forty degrees of latitude and seventy of longitude; but, also, over the neighboring regions of Central and Northern Asia, the north of Europe and of America, over a very large portion of the globe, including every possible variety of heat and cold, elevation and lowness, moisture and dryness, wood, marsh, and plain. That European Creoles in the West Indies, in America and in the East, have preserved their native features in all instances where no intermixture of blood has occurred, is proved by the uninterrupted experience of the Spaniards, Portuguese and English, who have had foreign colonies in climates most differing from their own, longer than any other nation. The modern Gipseys and the Jews afford examples of peculiar and distinctive casts of countenance being preserved in every climate." Volney has attempted to account for the peculiarities of the negro features in the following whimsical manner. We translate, for the benefit of those to whom the French may not be quite familiar. "I observe, that the features of the negro represent precisely the state of contraction which our faces assume when struck by the light and a strong reverberation of heat—then the brow frowns, the ball of the cheek rises, the eyelid contracts, and the mouth draws itself together (*fait la moue*.) Is it not natural that this contraction which takes place continually in the naked and hot country of the negro, should become the permanent characteristic of his face?—Unfortunately (answers Lawrence) for these speculations, the negro features occur in numerous tribes spread over a very great extent of country, with various climates, and in many instances, where the heat is by no means excessive; the character, too, is permanent after any number of generations, when the negro is taken into other climes." Blumenbach seriously quotes some wiseacre, even more fanciful than Volney, who would fain account for the flat mouth and swollen lips, by the fact that the mothers carrying their children on their backs, "in the violent motion required for their hard labor, as in beating and pounding millet, &c., the face of the young one is constantly thumping against the back of the mother." *Povero Bambino!* one would imagine that thumps violent enough to flatten its poor little nose, must keep the juvenile martyr in a state of constant depletion from that important organ. What, moreover, becomes of this theory in a barbarous country like our own, where, when the mother goes to work, the child is, by order of her brutal master, actually taken from her until her labor is done, and consigned to its cradle, or to the arms of a nurse, who holds it in the ordinary fashion for the carrying of such commodities, while basking in the sun, or sitting by a comfortable fire, according to circumstances. Farther—to call in science to our aid—"All the peculiarities of the negro cranium (says Lawrence) exist in the foetus. The prominent jaws, flat nose, and other characteristics, are found as strongly marked in the youngest embryo as in the adult. That climate has no transmissible effect on the skin, is evident from the fact, that the children of the husbandman, or of the sailor whose countenance bears the marks of other climes, are just as fair as those of the most delicate and pale inhabitants of a city. Nay, the Moors,

who have lived for ages under a burning sun, still have white children, and the offspring of Europeans in the Indies have the original tint of their progenitors. On the hypothesis which assigns the varieties of mankind to the operation of climate as their cause, we should expect to find in Africa all tribes under the equator of the most intensely black color; the tinge should become lighter and lighter as we proceed thence towards the South, and the complexion ought to be white, when we arrive at regions which enjoy a European climate. This, however, is by no means the case. The Abyssinians on the east, with dark olive color and long hair, are placed near the equator, and surrounded by negroes. In the same part, also, the Gallas, a great and barbarous nation, having, according to Bruce, long black hair and white skin, verging to brown, occupy extensive regions under the equator itself. On the other hand, as we proceed from the equator towards the south, through tribes of negroes, we find the black color continue with undiminished intensity. It is known in the West Indies, that the Congo negroes, in the blackness of their skin and woolly hair, equal any tribe of Africans. The Island of Madagascar, which is cooled by the mild breezes of the Indian Ocean, and ought, therefore, to continue a white race, has two kinds of natives: one of olive color with dark hair, the other true negroes. When we consider how large an extent of Africa is occupied by the black woolly-haired negroes, and that these regions vary in their latitude, their elevation, and every other point, that they include sandy deserts, coasts, rivers, hills, valleys, and very great varieties of climate, the conclusion that these adventitious circumstances do not influence the color or other properties of the race, is irresistible." Knox says—"My esteemed friend, Dr. Andrew Smith, informs me, that he attentively looked at a family descended from forefathers who came to South Africa with the first settlers. Three hundred years then had elapsed since their first arrival. Their descendants, at this moment, are as fair as the fairest of Europeans." Cases there are of white families, under similar circumstances, being lost to the whites and only known in their negro descendants; but there is abundant proof that this is the result of constant mingling with negro blood, until the white has run out; which the commonest observer knows must be the case where the supply of white blood is not constantly renewed. We in the United States of America, whether North or South, seem to be in little danger of changing our skins; and our children are as fair as their Saxon or Celtic ancestors, although occupying the very grounds on which the red man lived and died, leaving his scattered graves as memorials of ages of possession.

The wool of the negro, another mooted point, our author most satisfactorily settles for us, through the minute and learned argument of P. A. Browne. Most unwillingly do we pass over a discussion, showing such close research, and so triumphantly carried through. Our bounds will not, however, allow its insertion, and we can only entreat our readers to study it for themselves. The garbled view which our very limited extracts could give would be doing it injustice. Suffice it to say, that Mr. Browne not only proves his point by

producing fact upon fact in a way which it is difficult for a candid mind to oppose, but gives us also an insight of the extremely slovenly and careless manner in which Prichard occasionally pushes forward his positions. The covering of the negro-head is most indisputably *wool*. Hair will not felt, but wool will; and the covering of the negro's head will felt—has been felted." With reference to the color of the skin, which, a few lines back, we were discussing, Mr. Browne cites the authority of M. Flourens, an eminent French physiologist, who "found four distinct layers between the cuticle and the cutis;" the second of which, he says, is a mucous membrane—a distinct organized body, underlaying the pigment, and existing in persons of dark color only. M. Flourens sought in vain for this membrane between the cutis and outer lamina of the epidermis of the white man; and yet this is the seat of the discoloration produced in his complexion by exposure to the sun. From these examinations, this distinguished naturalist and anatomist was able to pronounce, definitely, that the discoloration in the skin of the white man is totally different in kind from the cause of blackness in the negro, and, therefore, justly concludes, that the negro and European are separate species of beings."

Have we yet given enough proof of difference of race and negro inferiority? Lawrence remarks, that the difference of color "between the white and the black races is not more striking than the pre-eminence of the former in moral feelings and in mental endowments." The negroes "indulge almost universally in disgusting debauchery and sensuality, and display gross selfishness, indifference to the pains and pleasures of others, insensibility to beauty of form, order and harmony, and an almost entire want of what we comprehend altogether under the expression of elevated sentiments, manly virtues and moral feeling. The hideous savages of Van Dieman's Land, of New-Holland, New-Guinea, and some neighboring islands, the negroes of Congo, and some other parts, exhibit the most disgusting moral, as well as physical portraits of man." And yet, we repeat with Carlyle, "not a bad fellow either, this poor Quashee, when *tolerably guided*." Guidance, however, he does need. Colonel Charles Hamilton Smith, whose predilections are, as Mr. Campbell remarks, in favor of the oppressed and degraded races, who resided long in the West Indies, and continued for years his investigations on the subject of the races, says of the negroes, "War is a passion that excites in them a brutal disregard of human feelings; it entails the deliberate murder of prisoners, and victims are slain to serve the manes of departed chiefs. Even cannibalism is frequent among tribes of the interior. The perceptive faculties of the children are far from contemptible, bearing good comparison with the white, but they drop behind about the twelfth year, when the reflective powers begin to have the ascendancy," and when the mind of the white is just developing itself. Is this not an approach to the state of the brute, whose mind, or instinct—call it as you will—is certainly, in early infancy, more developed than the human being? A lamb, a calf, or a colt, of a day or a week old, shows to much greater advantage than an infant of the same age.

"Collectively (continues Col. Smith) the untutored negro mind is confiding and single-hearted, naturally kind and hospitable. *Both sexes are easily ruled*, and appreciate what is good, under the guidance of common justice and prudence," but "they have never comprehended what they have learned, nor retained a civilization taught them by contact with more refined nations, losing it as soon as that contact has ceased. Conquest with them has been confined to kindred tribes, and produced only slaughter. Even Christianity, of more than three centuries, in Congo, has scarcely excited a progressive civilization. Thus, even the good qualities, given to the negro by the bounty of nature, have seemed only to make him a slave, trodden down by every remorseless foot, and to brand him, for ages, with the epithet of outcast." "And, true it is, that the worst slavery is his lot at home, for he is there exposed to the constant peril of becoming also a victim, slaughtered, with the most revolting torments. Tyrant of his blood, he traffics in slavery as it were merchandise; makes war purposely to capture neighbors, and sells even his own wives and children."

Is the negro made for slavery? God in heaven! what are we, that because we cannot understand the mystery of this Thy will, we should dare rise in rebellion and call it wrong, unjust and cruel? The kindness of nature fits each creature to fulfill its destiny. The very virtues of the negro fit him for slavery, and his vices cry aloud for the checks of bondage. Would it not be more worthy of thinking men, instead of endeavoring to brand with infamy a system so evidently marked out by the finger of God, rather to combine their efforts to make that system what it should be? Instead of driving the slaveholder, by an interference which puts his property and life in danger, to acts of harshness and restraint entirely unnecessary by the laws of nature; would it not be more wise, more human, and more philanthropic, to aid in removing obstacles, to soften difficulties, and thus prevent the abuses of a system which, sanctified by the laws of nature, needs but the fair operation of those laws to be like every other result of God's thought, beautiful in the undeviating order of creation? Beautiful it is in its fulfilment; hideous only in the unnatural struggle which, opposing man's law to God's law, rouses the evil passions of men in a vain effort to correct the works of Omniscience. But let us sum up this branch of our subject in the words of Dr. T. D. English, from a letter addressed to the author of "Negro-mania." "The steady advance of the white species meets with no parallel in the black. The latter has proved itself, when left to itself, to be incapable of progress. Even when taught by a superior species, it soon retrogrades to hopeless barbarism. To give it dominance is to extinguish agriculture, destroy the mechanic arts, and root out science. Such an apparent exception, as may be seen in Liberia, gladly as the philanthropist may hail it, proves only the power given by the infusion of other blood. The mulattoes there, as here, have the most intellectual force. When these wear out, as they will in time, a recurrence to the characteristics of the predominant original race will reproduce barbarism, unless, indeed, this ca-

lamity be averted by a renewed amalgamation. Nor do the isolated cases of negro smartness in this country prove anything more than the value of a Caucasian admixture. Nature has marked, by unerring lines, the distinction between the species, and her tokens cannot be wiped out, by either the sophistry of the negrophilist, or the cant of the fanatic. The manifest moral, intellectual, and physical inferiority of the negro issues from the decree of God, which no efforts of man can either alter or abrogate. Even modification must be but partial at least. It is the destiny of the negro, *if by himself, to be a savage, if by the white, to be a serf*. He may be a savage in name and in fact, as in Africa, or in fact only, as in Hayti. He may be a serf in name and in fact, as in the Southern states, or in fact only, as in the Northern States; but savage or serf he must be. No man who values himself, who has any regard for sound morality, or who feels any desire to see intellectual progress made certain, can join in the absurd attempt to raise the negro to his own level. A movement for such ends is necessarily impotent, and can only result at the best for the negro, in the degradation of the white. Kindness to these unfortunate beings is the duty of every man. They may be styled human beings, though of an inherently degraded species. To attempt to relieve them from their natural inferiority is idle in itself, and may be mischievous in its results. Calculated as it is to arouse evil passions, it may one day provoke a necessity not to be contemplated without horror. It may lead to a war between the species, which must result in the extirpation of the negro. True philanthropy—not that sickly sentiment which neglects the interests of the white laborer to cant about the black—but a true and honest regard for the best interests of mankind, will maintain the negro undisturbed in the relation which God has marked out for him." What that relation is, can, we think, be pretty fairly deduced from such testimony as we have here seen advanced. The alternatives are serfdom, or savagedom; a state of equality being, we think, honestly proved impossible. The antagonism of races is working itself out in every instance where two races are put in collision by the quicker or slower extinction of the inferior and feebler race. The only exceptions to this rule, which the world has ever seen, are where the beneficent system of serfdom (*i. e.* slavery) has come to the rescue and protection of the weaker race; and nowhere has this system been exhibited in more perfection, and freer from the abuses (for every system has its abuses) with which it is stained, than in the negro slavery of our Southern states. Knox has shown us everywhere the white blood treading down and exterminating the darker races. "The Saxon (he remarks) will not mingle with any dark race, nor will he allow him to hold an acre of land in the country occupied by him." "Already we have cleared Van Dieman's Land of every *human* aboriginal; Australia, of course, follows, and New-Zealand next. There is no denying the fact, that the Saxon—call him by what name you will—has a perfect horror for his darker brethren. Hence the folly of the war carried on by the philanthropists of Britain against nature." "The Anglo-Saxon has already cleared out Tasmania. It was a cruel, cold-blooded, heartless deed. Australia is too large to attempt the

same plan there; but by shooting the natives as freely as we do crows in other countries, the population must become thin and scarce in time." "It would be revolting (says Col. C. H. Smith, whom we have already quoted as the advocate of the dark races) to believe that the less gifted tribes were predestined to perish beneath the conquering and all-absorbing covetousness of European civilization, without an enormous load of responsibility resting on the perpetrators. Yet this fate appears to be sealed in many quarters, and seems, by a pre-ordained law, to be an effect of more mysterious import than human reason can grasp." Revolting though it may be to our eye, which pierces but the outer thought of creation's plan, if this be really the pre-ordained law of our existence, shall we better matters by struggling against it? One only door seems opened by nature to prevent such a catastrophe, and that is, through the beneficent system of serfdom, or otherwise, slavery. The word is of little import: the thing is the same. The negro, docile in subjection, attached, like the household dog, to his master—only in proportion to his intellect in a far higher grade of being—is satisfied and happy in the half-civilized condition, which, with us, his imitateness enables him to attain. Liberated—in other words, unprotected—and starving for want of protection, the dog, as the negro, returns to the untought habits and instincts of nature. Thievish and wolfish, the dog, poor fellow, is easily disposed of, and a gun, or a rope, settles the difficulty—as far as he is concerned. The negro is, it seems, according to Mr. Knox, occasionally disposed of by the same summary process. In more civilized communities, where law protects him, he will still, if the black population be comparatively small, dwindle and disappear before the antagonism of race, as we see now in the process of exemplification in our Northern states. But where the proportion is in an opposite ratio, the negro, whose individual is, as a man, protected by the law, becomes soon, in the aggregate, too powerful for the law. Then comes the clash of race, hideously developed in all its horrible proportions. The brutish propensities of the negro, now unchecked, there remains no road for their full exercise, (unless the white man voluntarily retreats before him,) but in the slaughter of his white master, and through that slaughter he strides (unless he himself be exterminated) to the full exercise of his native barbarity and savageism. And this, then, is the consummation so devoutly to be wished! Congo civilization! Hottentot civilization! Haytien civilization!!!

Jamaica is fast treading on the tracks of Hayti. British philanthropy has already succeeded in making the rich lands of that fair isle so utterly valueless, that the white man must soon abandon his right to live in it. And the vast and beautiful territory composing the southern and southwestern states of America,—this territory, whose giant youth is governing the world by its vast produce, which holds the reins of Europe, and spins round it, even with the fine web of its cotton fibre, a net-work, the destruction of which is the destruction of civilization—is this country too, to be abandoned to the desert and the waste, to negroism and barbarity, that abolitionism may chaunt its *Io pæans* over our ashes?

Abolition is not the abolition of slavery. Equality is no thought nor creation of God. Slavery, under one name or another, will exist as long as man exists; and abolition is a dream whose execution is an impossibility. Intellect is the only divine right. Intellect seeks freedom from its own proper impulses, and attains it by its own proper power. The negro cannot be schooled, nor argued, nor driven into a love of freedom. His intellect cannot grasp it, nor can he love an abstraction, which it is beyond his intellect to understand. The apostle of freedom can to the negro be nothing more than the apostle of temporary license and permanent savagism. "Heaven's laws are not repealable by earth, however earth may try."

We have in our article entirely forgotten the odious plea for amalgamation—a thought from which nature shrinks; but as all points are to be met, we are glad to find it in Mr. Campbell's book most ably discussed by more than one learned author. Knox, over and over again, strongly pronounces against the possible permanent existence of a hybrid race, and as such he unhesitatingly classes all mulattoes. "Nature's laws are stronger than bayonets." "No mixed race will she support." P. A. Browne, whom we have already noticed as so triumphantly meeting Prichard on the question of the woolly-head, comes here to our assistance in a manner equally decisive; confuting him from his own words, and proving his utter incapacity for the argument he undertakes. Let us remark, *en passant*, of Prichard, that he has been hitherto strangely overrated. His ponderous tomes are calculated, from their imposing appearance, and their real merit as a collection of facts, to make a great impression upon that large proportion of readers who read without close observation, and adopt without dispute the conclusions of their author; but we are glad to believe that a more just appreciation is now being formed of his labors. We have seen a notice, among other similar articles, of a review of his works, in the form of a treatise, by Dr. Caldwell, (Cincinnati: James,) by which the false positions of Dr. Prichard are said to be ably exposed, and the unphilosophical tendency of his work thoroughly combated. We have not room for the argument of Mr. Browne, but he satisfactorily proves, what many of us know from our own unlearned observation, that no mulatto race is self-perpetuating. They are subject to the law of hybrids, and can only continue to exist so long as they continue to receive supplies from the original races whence they sprang. These ceasing to flow in, with equipoised proportions, the predominating race gains the ascendant. Could we suppose, therefore, the possibility of a general amalgamation of the races, the certain result would be, that as the dark races by far outnumber the white, the white must, by the course of nature, become in time extinct. But such "is not the ultimate issue; no, not that." God has implanted in the white races, for their own preservation and for the perfecting of their high destiny, that strong antagonistic feeling of race, which holds them aloof in their purity. The white and the dark races can never amalgamate. "Nature's laws are stronger than bayonets"—stronger than the full tide of abolition and colonization societies, with all their old women and negro men, Lucretia Motts and Fred. Doug-

lasses to boot. Wilberforce was a good man, no doubt; a well-meaning, sentimentally good man; but all the vice, and all the crimes of all the hardened and ruffianly criminals whom the gallows has disposed of for the last century, could not, if allowed the full scope of their career, have accomplished one-tenth of the ill—one shadow of the evil, which this same sentimental goodness has occasioned. The first piddles in little murders, the last sweeps away nations. Goodness, which in its well-meaning ignorance, assumes an antagonistic position to nature's laws, becomes infinitely mischievous. Those laws, embodying, as they do, the thought of God, must finally prevail; but, alas, for the generations upon whose destinies such antagonistic influences act! For them at least the beautiful thought of God, the all-conquering order of nature, becomes a fearful scourge. Placed in antagonism with it, they cannot destroy it—it must destroy them. The thought of God prevails, and generations are swept away. *Depart, ye quack-ridden incompetent!*

"Every one knows (says Blackwood) how easy it is to get up a shout upon any vague pretext of humanity, and how frequently the credulity of the people of England has been imposed on by specious and designing hypocrites. With this set of men, Africa has been for many years a pet subject of complaint. They have made the wrongs of the negro a short and profitable cut to fame and fortune, and their spurious philanthropy has never failed to engage the support of a large number of weak, but well-meaning individuals, who are totally ignorant of the real objects which lie at the bottom of the agitations." "An abolition meeting (remarks Mr. Campbell) is held at some town in Ohio, New-York, or Pennsylvania; speeches are made, negro wrongs are dwelt upon, Burns is quoted, 'A man's a man for a' that,' and Terence also, '*Homo sum et nihil a me alienum puto*,' 'My black brother,' and 'All men are born free and equal.' The meeting terminates—an impression is made, and frequently even upon strong minds. There are no libraries within reach; the different authors' works are too expensive, and the abolition poison runs through the mental system, as hydrophobia through the physical, until the patient becomes a rabid, raving fanatic." The author goes on to say that his volume is intended to popularize the subject, and thus to counteract this evil. Most heartily do we wish him success. Full time it is that something were doing—sinking as we are, to use the words of Carlyle, "in deep froth oceans of 'Benevolence,' 'Fraternity,' 'Emancipation-principle,' 'Christian Philanthropy,' and other most amiable-looking, but most baseless, and, in the end, baleful and all-bewildering jargon." "Never till now did the sun look down on such a jumble of human nonsenses." "We have a long way to travel back, and terrible flounderings to make, and in fact an immense load of nonsense to dislodge from our poor heads, and manifold cobwebs to rend from our poor eyes, before we get into the road again, and can begin to act as serious men that have work to do in this universe, and no longer as windy sentimentalists, that merely have speeches to deliver, and speeches to write." "Our own white or sallow Ireland, sluttishly starving from age to age on its act of parliament freedom, was hitherto the flower of mis-

management among nations; but what will this be to a negro Ireland, with pumpkins themselves fallen short, like potatoes? Imagination cannot fathom such an object; the belly of Chaos never held the like. The human mind in its wide-wanderings has not dreamt yet of such a 'freedom' as that will be." "Terrible must be the struggle to return from our delusions, floating rapidly on which, not the West Indies alone, but Europe generally, is nearing the Niagara Falls."

We agree with Mr. Campbell that a full and open discussion on the subject of the races, is the likeliest mode of warding off the terrible evil which hangs over us. We are hardly sanguine enough to believe with him that "there is a rapid change going on in the public mind of our northern states favorable to negro slavery;" but we do believe, that nothing would go farther towards expediting such a change, than the bold expression of such fair and honorable views as he has not hesitated to advance. "Let our citizens (he says) understand the real merits of the question at issue, and there is no fear but a healthy tone will be given to public opinion, and that maudlin, silly humanitarianism will give way to true ideas and plain practical common sense." "It is only necessary to demand discussion—open, fair and free discussion—to prove to our working citizens the extreme wickedness of freeing the negro under any pretext at all." Fain would we believe this; and from our hearts we thank Mr. Campbell for his manly effort in the true cause of civilization and humanity. It is indeed a noble cause; and high the meed of praise to those who contribute to unmask the hideous form which now, under the assumed name of philanthropy, covering like the veiled prophet of Khorassan its fearful loathsomeness with the garb and appurtenances of divinity, claims the worship of the world.

"Not the long-promised light, the brow whose beaming
Was to come forth all-conquering, all-redeeming,
But features horribler than hell e'er traced
On its own brood."

"There, ye wise saints, behold your light, your star,
Ye *would* be dupes and victims, and ye *are*."

L. S. M.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

PROGRESS OF THE TRADE, COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, &c. OF
ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI.

No. I.

WE have received, through the courtesy of the Chamber of Commerce of St. Louis, a most valuable report, drawn up by a committee, of which J. A. Brownlee, Esq., is chairman, and which sketches the history of the industry of St. Louis for a series of years past. We shall republish this paper entire, but will be compelled to divide it into three or four parts.

PROVISION TRADE OF ST. LOUIS.

It is only a few years since the country lying north of us, and bordering on the Mississippi and its tributaries, was dependent upon the earlier settled districts

of the West for a large proportion of the pork and flour required for its sustenance; and it was not until about the year 1840 that it ceased to look to the valley of Ohio for its supplies. About this time, a small surplus, consisting of meat, badly handled, and improperly cured, began to manifest itself; yet it was so unimportant, until the year 1844, as to attract but little attention; nor was the business of cutting and curing for distant markets commenced in the city of St. Louis until the winter of 1845-6, when some 16,000 hogs were packed. This led in the following season to the cutting of some 30,498 hogs, and was attended by a corresponding increase in the receipts from the country. In the succeeding season, the packing of St. Louis reached 63,924 hogs, whilst in the winter of 1848-9 the business was extended to 83,502, and subsequently, in 1849-50, to 115,253. During this period, there was a corresponding increase in the receipts from the country.

In the year 1850 there was a falling off, alike in the number of hogs packed in St. Louis, and in the receipts of their products from the country, which is accounted for in part by the continued drought of the preceding summer, by which the crop of corn in some large districts was materially injured, but mainly by the diversion of a large proportion of agricultural labor to the mines of California, and its associate enterprises.

That the trade in provisions, and the raising of stock, are progressive, and will continue to increase in a corresponding ratio with the improvement and development of the resources of the immense country lying around and above St. Louis, is, in our opinion, beyond question ; nor will we be disappointed to find these among the more important as well as more profitable branches of the commerce of our enterprising city.

enterprises in a new country, the business of cutting and curing provisions, especially in the small country towns, was imperfectly and unskillfully done. The product, or manufactured article, was often unsightly, and little calculated to be preserved during the summer months; the inevitable consequence was a loss to the packer, and a prejudice against his work.

As the product of the country increased, other and more experienced parties were induced to engage in the trade. A rapid but thorough change in the character and quality of the so-called "Missouri Bacon" has been effected; from being the *poorest*, it is now regarded among the *best* which finds its way to our southern and northern Atlantic ports; whilst in Liverpool and London the character of St. Louis provisions stands deservedly higher than those from any other city of the West.

The commerce in provisions passing through this market, amounts annually to some \$3,500,000. This, as we have seen, is the work of the past eleven years; the greater part having been consummated in the last four to five years. That it may, if properly fostered, be extended from some six to eight millions of dollars in the ensuing ten years, is not by any means improbable.

As the commerce in provisions has not been limited to their imports, but has been materially increased by the number of hogs and beef cattle slaughtered and packed within the city, we have prepared, and herewith submit a table showing the number of hogs and beef cattle packed in St. Louis from the 1st November, 1845, to March 1st, 1851.

Imports of Provisions into St. Louis during the years 1844, '45, '46, '47, '48, '49 and '50, commencing 1st January, and ending 31st December :

ARTICLES.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	*1851.
Pork, barrels and tierces.....	29,945	15,702	48,981	43,692	97,669	113,862	62,173	100,164
Beef, " " " " " " " " " " " "	4,280	5,264	1,716	10,485	17,323	17,916	7,987	7,817
Lard, " " " " " " " " " " " "	12,203	7,652	26,462	34,171	73,962	74,121	54,960	11,764
" Keys.....	12,609	6,659	14,730	8,595	14,180	18,885	13,099	13,560
Bacon, casks and hhd's.....	19,225	6,180	11,803	14,425	29,423	16,240	25,797	22,384
" Pieces.....	1,840	1,490	16,180	12,800	66,290	35,240	58,680	9,657
Bulk meat, pounds.....	136,333	261,754	630,765	285,797	8,455,000	9,651,322	1,419,530	574,463
Tallow, casks and hhd's.....	942	863	1,419	2,329	1,195	1,604		

* From September 1, 1850, to August 31, 1851.

Statement, showing the number of HOGS and BEEF CATTLE packed in St. Louis, from 1st November, 1845, to 1st March, 1851:

	Hogs.	Beef Cattle.
Winter 1845-46.....	16,000.....	—
" 1846-47.....	30,498.....	—
" 1847-48.....	63,924.....	—
" 1848-49.....	82,502.....	2,148
" 1849-50.....	115,253.....	2,158
" 1850-51.....	90,000.....	—

FLOUR, WHEAT, ETC., OF ST. LOUIS.

Tabular statement, showing the receipts by river, of flour, wheat, corn, oats, and barley, for the past five years, viz: from 1846 to 1850, and from September 1st, 1850, to September 1st, 1851.

	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.
Flour, bbls.....	220,454.....	308,568.....	387,314.....	306,412
Wheat, bushels.....	1,838,925.....	2,432,377.....	2,194,786.....	1,792,535
Corn, ".....	688,649.....	1,016,318.....	699,693.....	305,383
Oats, ".....	95,612.....	202,365.....	243,700.....	252,291
Barley, ".....	10,150.....	57,380.....	55,500.....	46,263

From September 1st, 1850, to September 1st, 1851.

Wheat.....	999,755 sacks }	Bushels.	Bbls. Flour.
".....	27,712 bbls. }	equal to 2,090,000	equal to 440,000
Flour.....			287,234
Corn.....	911,360 sacks.		
Oats.....	489,540 "		
Barley.....	42,628 "		

The land receipts of all these articles are considerable, but cannot be definitely ascertained. In flour and wheat it may be estimated equal to 73,000 bbls; giving thus, for total receipts of flour and wheat, equal to 800,000 bbls.; for which there is estimated to be a city demand of, say 3,000 bbls. per week, a coast and trade demand of 3,000 bbls. per week, leaving for New-Orleans 9,000 bbls. per week.

The coast and trade, with the New-Orleans demand, would make 12,000 bbls. per week, which is found to be about the average shipments.

The trade embraces from the lower part of the Ohio river, the Cumberland, Tennessee, Mississippi and White and Red rivers. At New-Orleans it passes into city consumption, and to Alabama, Florida and Texas.

Comparatively little is taken regularly east from New-Orleans—that trade taking the Ohio flour from flat-boats; the grade of it being more nearly graduated to the inspection and eastern trade.

St. Louis flour has therefore the main consumption of this valley, and enjoys the preference from its position. Available almost every day to river navigation, and furthermore as the great variety of soil and climate furnishes wheat to its mills, affording the millers the privilege of selections and mixing, by which uniformity can be obtained, not available in local selections year after year.

The milling power of the city is large, there being twenty mills with 58 run of burrs, capable of grinding 3,500 bbls. of flour per day.

The supplies of wheat are not equal to this full capacity, the consumption of immigration above, and the artificial channels east, diverting it, and from being an exporter of wheat five years since, St. Louis is now occasionally forced by her local trade to look to the Lakes, the Ohio and Wabash, for considerable quantities of wheat, and stands with a higher wheat market than any other city in the West.

In corn, barley and oats, there are large wagon receipts, and sales here deliverable at points below present accuracy in giving the figures. The local con-

sumption is large by distilleries and breweries, in corn and barley; and the latter article has the past season been received from Buffalo for use at this place.

The before mentioned position of constant river navigation, makes St. Louis in these articles, as in flour, the feeder of consumption, and at higher prices than regulated by export.

HEMP STATEMENT—ST. LOUIS.

We append a tabular statement of the receipts of hemp and hemp product, at the port of St. Louis, for the past nine years.

The aggregate receipts during the past year greatly exceed those of any previous year since this great staple became an object of attention in our state. In 1847, the receipts reached 11,018 tons, a circumstance, however, measurably owing to the non-reception during the previous year of the crop due, the receipts in 1846 being only 5,387 tons.

Although the average prices during the past season have ruled lower than at any time during the past five years, yet has the quality been better, not to mention the superior manner in which it has been prepared for market.

YEARS.	No. bales of hemp.	Bales equal to ton hemp.	Aggregate tons hemp.	No. culls of rope.	Culls rope equal to ton hemp.	Aggregate tons.	Pieces of bagging.	Pieces bagging equal to ton hemp.	Aggregate tons.
1843	17,580	8	2,198	9,682	80	481	3,370	11	297
1844	59,292	8	7,411	12,573	80	624	3,150	11	287
1845	30,997	8	3,873	8,890	80	444	4,217	11	383
1846	33,853	7	4,836	5,122	80	226	3,243	11	295
1847	72,223	7	10,317	10,789	19	568	1,438	12	128
1848	52,236	7	7,461	13,300	19	705	1,085	12	91
1849	46,200	6	7,115	19,831	18	1,102	688	12	57
1850	60,878	6	10,140	22,500	18	1,250	1,232	12	103
1851	65,448	6	10,908	34,491	18	1,941	2,998	12	250

2.—COMMERCE OF BALTIMORE, FROM THE 1ST OF JANUARY, 1851, TO 1ST JANUARY, 1852.

We are indebted to that able and indefatigable journal, the Baltimore Prices Current, for the following interesting statistics, showing the progress of our sister city in all the elements of commercial wealth. The results are most gratifying:

"A happy augury of the future extent of our southern trade is presented in the astonishing increase in business with that quarter within the year. This increase is in part attributable to the fact, that planters, finding that the high price obtained for cotton the last two years likely to continue, neglected the growing of corn and raising of hogs, and turned their attention to that article; and were therefore chiefly dependent upon markets northward for their grain and provisions. It is also owing somewhat to a sectional preference. To render every facility and encouragement to this growing trade, our merchants have already put afloat the first of a line of propeller steamers to Charleston, named the Palmetto, and the second of the line is about being contracted for. Ere another twelvemonth shall have rolled by, we hope to see the same means of communication established with Savannah and other southern ports trading with us.

"In little more than a year hence, we have the promise that our connection by rail-road with the Ohio River will be completed. There is much cause for congratulation that an event, long looked forward to with so much hope and solicitude by the people of Baltimore, is so near at hand. Upon the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road are founded our chief anticipations as to the future of our city—its success, now so well established in the belief of every one acquainted with rail-road enterprises in the United States, will secure the perfection of our western trade, and the advancement of Baltimore to greater wealth and influence than she has hitherto ever enjoyed.

"With the completion of our Western Rail-road, the necessity of direct com-

munication with Europe by steam will become more than ever apparent. A bill for a line of steamers from Baltimore to Liverpool is again before Congress, and we sincerely trust that our representatives may succeed finally in securing the patronage of government in our efforts to supply a want long felt in our trade with Europe. Whilst other cities are having steamers running to every port with which their intercourse is in any way important, it seems strange that Baltimore, enjoying such a large trade with the old world, should be so deficient in this respect.

"We are happy to announce that arrangements are now being made between the Dauphin & Susquehanna Coal Company and R. M. Magraw, Esq., President of the Baltimore and Susquehanna Rail-road Company, for the introduction of a large proportion of the products of the mines of that company into our market. The quality of the different kinds of the article obtained at these mines is represented as very superior; and there is every prospect of a large demand. We understand that an experimental trip will shortly be made, with a view to ascertain the capacity, cost, &c., of this article over the road, delivered in our city. The extension of the Baltimore and Susquehanna Rail-road from Harrisburg to Sunbury, under the provisions of the charter obtained at the last session of the Pennsylvania Legislature, is looked forward to with lively interest by the mercantile community. Independent of the great object of its construction, viz., a direct connection with the lakes, its line will open up to us a region of country teeming with the mineral productions of that wealthy state; and it embraces even now on its proposed route no less than four lateral rail-roads, leading directly to a like number of coal mines, of which that of the Dauphin and Susquehanna Coal Company is one. We hope that our citizens generally will give their support to the efforts now being made by the enterprising gentlemen having charge of this matter of the extension of the Baltimore and Susquehanna Rail-road. It is a subject of vast importance to our city—indeed, second to none that now engages their attention."

Value of Imports from foreign countries at this port for 1851.

In American vessels.....	\$6,106,106
In foreign vessels.....	1,137,857
Total value of imports for the year 1851.....	\$7,243,963

Value of Exports for 1851.

Domestic produce in American vessels.....	\$4,460,620	Foreign merchandise in foreign vessels.....	5,925
Domestic produce in foreign vessels.....	1,775,041	Total exports of foreign merchandise.....	230,504
Total domestic produce exported \$6,235,661		Value of domestic produce exported, as given above.....	6,235,661
Foreign merchandise in American vessels.....	\$224,579	Total exports for 1851.....	\$6,466,165

Value of foreign Imports and Exports at the district of Baltimore, commencing 1st of January, 1840, and ending 30th September, 1851.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1840.....	\$3,109,274	\$5,868,018	1846.....	4,238,760	6,710,559
1841.....	6,109,101	4,997,633	1847.....	4,146,743	9,826,479
1842.....	4,052,260	4,448,946	1848.....	5,245,894	7,209,602
1843.....	3,607,733	4,740,042	1849.....	5,291,566	8,660,981
1844.....	4,251,883	4,622,063	1850.....	6,417,113	8,530,970
1845.....	3,356,670	6,256,276	1851.....	7,243,963	6,466,165

Foreign arrivals and clearances, and their tonnage, in 1851.

Arrivals.	No.	Tonnage.	Clearances.	No.	Tonnage
American vessels.....	343	90,009	American vessels cleared for foreign ports.....	332	81,329
Foreign vessels.....	147	30,183	Foreign vessels cleared for foreign ports.....	152	33,355
Total for 1851.....	490	120,185	Total clearances for 1851.....	484	114,684
Total for 1850.....	467		Total clearances for 1850.....	511	130,587

Table of Inspections of Wheat and Rye Flour, and Corn Meal, for the last eleven years.

	FLOUR.		CORN MEAL.		RYE FLOUR.	
	Bbls.	Hbds.	Bbls.	Half bbls.	Bbls.	Half bbls.
1841.....	628,974	459	10,736	34	3,831	29
1842.....	558,282	715	7,772	437	5,436	34
1843.....	560,431	535	13,359	821	8,401	45
1844.....	499,501	245	25,054	1,525	9,904	—
1845.....	576,745	631	23,949	1,450	6,518	24
1846.....	850,116	1076	40,942	1,744	5,402	—
1847.....	959,456	934	105,842	1,298	6,666	49
1848.....	736,441	333	60,225	1,322	7,520	105
1849.....	764,519	428	51,772	2,051	8,007	0
1850.....	896,592	272	42,403	3,369	5,419	22
1851.....	912,498	620	28,917	2,256	7,654	53

Tobacco Inspections at Baltimore for the last eleven years.

Years.	Mary. land.	Virginia and		Years.	Mary. land.	Virginia and		Total.
		Ohio.	other kinds.			Ohio.	other kinds.	
1851.....	25,013	16,798	931	1845.....	39,538	26,696	1,755	67,989
1850.....	27,085	13,965	783	1844.....	32,249	15,464	1,244	48,957
1849.....	30,689	13,664	1,248	1843.....	29,354	13,465	4,877	47,696
1848.....	23,491	9,702	703	1842.....	33,759	11,278	1,439	46,476
1847.....	34,580	15,219	772	1841.....	29,980	7,692	1,479	39,151
1846.....	44,416	29,626	754					

Exports of Tobacco from the port of Baltimore, for the last eleven years.

Years.	Bremen.	Rotterdam.	Amsterdam.	France.	All other places.	Total.
1851.....	12,654	9,694	4,154	2,327	5,292	34,124
1850.....	15,864	7,814	5,973	8,177	6,540	44,368
1849.....	18,821	13,783	8,725	9,562	1,033	51,924
1848.....	12,787	7,910	3,103	5,761	131	38,890
1847.....	22,967	7,819	11,388	7,889	1,895	53,482
1846.....	24,404	9,498	6,181	8,165	3,037	49,491
1845.....	26,832	18,171	10,944	7,183	2,880	66,010
1844.....	17,139	11,864	7,095	7,212	1,594	44,934
1843.....	16,990	6,525	7,325	7,932	3,822	42,594
1842.....	17,719	10,874	8,109	4,682	2,379	43,763
1841.....	16,373	7,918	5,169	3,814	2,519	38,001

Inspections of Flour and Meal in the city of Baltimore for the year 1851.

1851. MONTHS.	HOWARD-ST.		CITY MILLS.		SUSQUEHANNA.		FAMILY.	
	Bbls.	Halves.	Bbls.	Halves.	Bbls.	Halves.	Bbls.	Halves.
January.....	65,107	1177	21,496	2,164	35	—	4,099	—
February.....	56,686	882	9,655	1,112	119	—	1,945	25
March.....	47,132	925	14,128	3,119	2,551	—	2,189	25
April.....	39,352	825	19,464	1,789	2,468	—	1,850	25
May.....	46,100	482	24,562	3,236	3,472	—	3,360	25
June.....	31,957	457	19,069	1,678	3,552	—	1,285	—
July.....	31,257	272	22,501	1,675	1,405	—	2,918	65
August.....	34,533	380	41,872	2,212	921	—	2,294	25
September.....	27,253	282	31,191	1,981	1,655	—	3,194	—
October.....	45,669	434	37,635	2,283	500	—	3,579	120
November.....	42,037	190	37,335	2,143	2,413	200	3,663	—
December.....	62,936	754	32,764	1,780	308	—	3,918	86
Total, '51.....	530,419	7060	312,372	25,172	19,399	200	34,294	396
Total, '50.....	547,406	3656	283,420	23,632	17,028	38	34,923	304
Increase..	—	3404	28,992	1,540	2,371	162	—	92
Decrease..	17,387	—	—	—	—	—	629	—

Inspections of Flour and Meal continued.

1851.	TOTAL W. FLOUR.		RYE.		CORN MEAL.	
MONTHS.	Bbls.	Halves.	Bbls.	Halves.	Bbls.	Halves.
January.....	90,737	3,341	1051	—	170	3,630
February.....	68,405	2,019	1230	5	34	2,711
March.....	66,700	4,069	502	—	98	3,193
April.....	63,134	2,639	455	4	—	3,399
May.....	77,494	3,743	875	—	154	2,870
June.....	55,863	2,135	729	20	—	2,862
July.....	58,081	2,012	498	—	—	1,432
August.....	79,620	2,617	415	—	—	2,279
September.....	63,293	2,263	655	—	49	1,207
October.....	67,383	2,837	80	24	20	1,353
November.....	85,448	2,523	257	—	30	1,738
December.....	99,926	2,620	907	—	65	2,253
Total, '51.....	896,084	32,828	7654	53	620	28,917
Total, '50.....	882,777	27,630	5419	22	272	42,403
Increase.....	13,307	5,198	2235	31	348	—
Decrease.....	—	—	—	—	—	13,486
						1,113

Report of Inspection of Fish in Baltimore, 1851.

	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.	Condemned.	Total, '51.	Total, '50.
Mackerel, bbls.....	866.	1,933.	25,684.	1,118.	29,601.	24,569.
halves.....	528.	1,642.	4,359.	100.	6,629.	3,363.
Shad, bbls.....	2,704.	237.	—	90.	3,031.	7,263.
halves.....	1,073.	60.	—	11.	1,144.	926.
Herrings, bbls.....	20,480.	1,300.	—	624.	22,404.	29,269.
halves.....	1,488.	—	—	25.	1,513.	918.
Codfish, bbls.....	134.	—	—	40.	174.	165.
halves.....	6.	—	—	—	6.	54.
Scalefish, bbls.....	139.	—	—	3.	142.	—
Salmon,	55.	19.	—	—	67.	94.
Alwives,	—	—	—	25.	25.	—
Swordfish,	4.	—	—	—	4.	—
1	1.	—	—	—	1.	—
Rockfish,	—	—	—	3.	3.	—

Imports of Sugar and Molasses, into Baltimore.

From New-Orleans, for the last ten years, from January 1st in each year, to 31st December.

Years.	SUGAR.		MOLASSES.	
	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Tres. Bbls.
1840.....	7433.	233.	901.	363. 5317
1841.....	4184.	11.	678.	521. 5964
1842.....	6103.	264.	413.	475. 2905
1843.....	7642.	741.	1350.	309. 9541
1844.....	5179.	114.	586.	75. 4996
1845.....	12609.	413.	785.	583. 10150
1846.....	9845.	517.	407.	201. 6925
1847.....	6013.	183.	348.	8. 2907
1848.....	10279.	3269.	721.	554. 12703
1849.....	9851.	2384.	—	251. 11086
1850.....	11066.	3146.	77.	244. 14715
1851.....	7174.	3438.	813.	171. 7615

From the West Indies, for the last eleven years.

Years.	SUGAR.		MOLASSES.	
	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
1839.....	10929.	2164.	2913.	573.
1840.....	8007.	1905.	5420.	316.
1841.....	8750.	4006.	4256.	159.
1842.....	10828.	1252.	3676.	155.
1843.....	7483.	735.	2769.	163.
1844.....	10885.	536.	5654.	43.
1845.....	5161.	209.	3600.	248.
1846.....	6541.	224.	3586.	542.
1847.....	18240.	4236.	7862.	488.
1848.....	14841.	2393.	6608.	852.
1849.....	12570.	5654.	5883.	499.
1850.....	11454.	1420.	6815.	529.
1851.....	16739.	234.	7638.	3329.

Vessels arrived at Baltimore during the year 1851, exclusive of bay craft.

	No. Ships.	B's.	B'gs.	Schrs.	Total.		No. Ships.	B's.	B'gs.	Schrs.	Total.
January.....	5.	11.	28.	95.	139	August.....	11.	23.	38.	79.	151
February.....	8.	24.	31.	81.	144	September....	16.	24.	31.	82.	153
March.....	7.	15.	26.	115.	163	October.....	14.	17.	30.	66.	127
April.....	11.	14.	31.	86.	142	November.....	7.	18.	22.	73.	120
May.....	7.	19.	27.	91.	144	December.....	5.	14.	22.	54.	95
June.....	8.	10.	30.	71.	119						
July.....	4.	25.	30.	77.	136	Total, 1851..	103.	214.	346.	970.	1633

Exports of Flour from Baltimore, commencing 1st January, 1851.

Where to.	This week.	Previously.	Total. 1851.	Where to.	This week.	Previously.	Total. 1851.
Great Britain.....	—	—	71946	Venezuela.....	—	—	7396
Hanse Towns.....	—	—	5851	West Indies.....	160	—	128567
Holland.....	—	—	1081	Other ports.....	—	—	22247
Brazil.....	—	—	135527				
Montevideo B. A... ..	—	—	13723	Total, 1851.....			414963
Br. N. A. colonies..	—	—	28465	Total, 1850.....			317399

Exports of Tobacco from Baltimore, commencing from January 1, 1851, and same time 1850.

Where to.	This week.	Previ- ously.	Total.	Same time 1850.	Where to.	This week.	Previ- ously.	Total.	Same time 1850.
Bremen... ..	—	—	12654	15864	Austria.....	—	—	1850	600
Amsterdam.....	—	—	4154	5973	Spain.....	—	—	1158	2129
Rotterdam.....	—	—	9694	7814	Africa.....	—	—	24	54
Havre... ..	—	—	—	—	W. Indies..	—	—	166	13
Bordeaux.....	—	—	2327	8177	Other ports.....	—	—	—	44
Marseilles.....	—	—	—	—					
England.....	—	—	1326	1955	Total hhds.	—	—	34124	44368
Russia.....	—	—	602	1856					

Flour Inspections.

Descriptions.	This week.	Previ- ously.	Same time, 1850.	Descriptions.	This week.	Previ- ously.	Same time, 1850.
Howard-street..	—	533549	549233	Family.....	—	34494	35171
City Mills.....	—	394958	295236	Rye.....	—	7578	5480
Susquehanna...	—	20399	17057	Corn Meal.....	—	33145	45360

The above inspections are computed as barrels.

Tobacco Inspections, commencing from Jan. 1, 1851, and same time, 1850.

Descriptions.	This week.	Previ- ously.	Total.	1850.	Descriptions.	This week.	Previ- ously.	Total.	1850.
Maryland... ..	—	—	25013	27085	Virginia... ..	—	—	—	—
Ohio.....	—	—	16798	13965	Kentucky... ..	—	—	931	793
					Pennsylv'a } ..	—	—	—	—

A Comparative Statement of the Imports at the Port of Baltimore, commencing January, 1850, and 1851.

Articles.	This week.	Previ- ously.	Last season.	Articles.	This week.	Previ- ously.	Last season.
Bark, Peruvian, ceroons, —	750	—	1984	Figs, drums.....	—	9787	3657
Coffee, Rio, bags.....	266240	—	150190	Figs, cases.....	—	356	994
Laguayra & P.Cabello, —	31081	—	24044	Raisins, casks.....	—	625	252
Maracaibo.....	5873	—	2750	Raisins, boxes.....	—	29065	22100
Other ports.....	8114	—	6532	Guano, tons.....	—	27239	7397
Coastwise.....	3885	—	3934	Hides, from			
Cocoa, bags and qtls....	4721	—	8593	Buenos Ayres.....	—	80448	89293
Cocoa nuts, No.....	—	—	—	Montevideo.....	—	—	—
Cotton, from				Rio Grande.....	—	54693	62091
New-Orleans, bales... ..	3070	—	4015	California.....	—	16473	—
Mobile.....	2737	—	1371	Porto Cabello.....	—	16886	31580
Charleston.....	12500	—	10000	Rio de Janeiro.....	—	—	32551
Savannah.....	2950	—	2500	Other foreign ports..	—	13268	13927
Apalachicola.....	677	—	1883	Coastwise.....	—	72026	42750
Other ports.....	7500	—	6000	Horns, No.....	—	—	—
Copper, pigs.....	—	—	—	Indigo, ceroons.....	—	110	281
Copper, bars.....	—	—	—	Iron, bars.....	—	152254	76450
Dyewood.....	—	—	—	Pig, tons.....	—	1994	272
Logwood, tons.....	75	—	416	Bundles.....	—	50282	7500
Plastic, tons.....	7	—	42	Rail-road, tons.....	—	1333	22840
Fruit, Lemons, boxes... ..	4411	—	2222	Rail-road, bars.....	—	22123	38439
Oranges, boxes.....	15874	—	1632				

Imports continued.

Articles.	This week.	Previ- ously.	Last season.	Articles.	This week.	Previ- ously.	Last season.
Molasses, from				Pimento, bags.....	—	2869..	2270
Foreign ports, hhds..	—	7638..	6815	Salt—			
.. .. tierces.	—	2329..	527	Liverpool, tons.....	—	334..	20
.. .. bbls.....	—	308..	294	Liverpool, sacks.....	—	67228..	67577
Coastwise, hhds..	—	813..	77	Coastwise, sacks.....	—	50388..	23720
.. .. tierces.	—	171..	244	Cadiz, lasts.....	—	..	—
.. .. bbls.....	—	7915..	14715	St. Ubes, moya.....	—	..	1129
Rice, casks.....	—	5397..	4003	West Indies, bush....	—	97626..	83595
Provisions, from New-				Sugar, from			
Orleans—				Foreign ports, hhds..	—	16722..	11454
Beef, tierces.....	—	9..	347 tierces.	—	322..	405
Beef, bbls.....	—	1050..	26133 bbls....	—	2542..	1420
Pork, tierces.....	—	1726..	3899 boxes..	—	3597..	3041
Pork, bbls.....	—	9769..	27978 bags....	—	8310..	10300
Pork, bulk, tons....	—	30..	1214	Coastwise, hhds....	—	7173..	11066
Lard, tierces.....	—	1536..	2202 casks..	—	450..	156
Lard, bbls.....	—	3285..	8034 bbls....	—	3432..	3146
Lard, kegs.....	—	1481..	25488	Tin Plate, boxes.....	—	6596..	4542

3.—COMMERCE OF NEW-ORLEANS.

In order to complete our statistics of New-Orleans for the year ending 31st August, 1851, we publish the following statement :

WESTERN PRODUCE BUSINESS.

This heading, as connected with our trade, embraces a great variety of commodities, of immense value, but our limited space will only admit of our noting the past season's operations in some few of the leading articles. In the supplies of Flour and Indian Corn there has been a material increase, as compared with last year, the receipts of the former since September 1st, being 941,106 barrels, against 591,986 barrels, and of the latter equal to 3,300,000 bushels, against 2,750,000 bushels. Of Wheat also, there has been an increased supply, but little or none of it has been exported, and only a very small proportion sold here, the bulk having been on account of our city mills, or for transmission to Alabama and Georgia. The receipts are equal to 180,000 bushels, against 110,000 bushels last year. Of Corn Meal, the receipts are 3,662 barrels, against 5,187 barrels last year. The total exports of Flour since 1st September, amount to 583,418 barrels, against 211,750 barrels last year. Of this quantity, 205,508 barrels were shipped to Great Britain, 145,340 to West Indies, &c., and the remainder to coastwise ports. Of Indian Corn, the total exports have been equal to 1,300,000 bushels, against 1,060,000 bushels last year. Of this quantity, 135,000 bushels were shipped to Great Britain and Ireland, 265,000 to West Indies, &c., and the remainder to coastwise ports.

The annexed table exhibits the exports of Breadstuffs from the United States to Great Britain and Ireland since 1st September, compared with same period last year. By this it will be seen that there has been a very large increase in the exports of Flour and Wheat, while in those of Indian Corn there is shown a falling off of over fifty per cent. Nearly two-thirds of the whole has been shipped from the port of New-York.

	1850-'51.	1849-'50.		1850-'51.	1849-'50.
Flour, barrels.....	1,379,643.....	392,742	Wheat, bushels....	1,286,630.....	432,939
Corn Meal.....	5,553.....	6,086	Corn.....	2,197,253.....	4,813,373

It is understood that the grain crops of the West are very fair, if not abundant; and this is fortunate for the South, where the corn crops have failed, even to a much greater extent than last year, when our planters were compelled to buy largely of the produce of the western farmers. At the same time the fine promise of the European crops, if realized, is likely to prevent a very high range of prices, by lessening the demand for export. It was early asserted by western dealers that the "hog crop" would be materially short of that of the

previous year, and the correctness of this position would seem to be demonstrated by the very large falling off in the receipts of Pork at this market.

The decrease in the supply of Lard has been proportionate to that of Pork, and prices have been correspondingly enhanced. The total exports since 1st September, (all packages being reduced to kegs) are equal to 738,956 kegs against 1,554,849 kegs last year. Of this quantity, 188,353 kegs were exported to foreign ports, against 696,259 kegs last year, Great Britain having taken 41,663 kegs, against 425,830 kegs last year. The following table, showing the highest and lowest range of prices, according to quality, in each month, will exhibit the course of the market:

PRICES OF LARD.

	Highest. Cents per lb.	Lowest. Cents per lb.		Highest. Cents per lb.	Lowest. Cents per lb.
September.....	5½ a 7½	5 a 7½	March.....	7 a 9	6½ a 8
October.....	5 a 7½	5 a 7½	April.....	8 a 11½	6½ a 8½
November.....	6½ a 7½	5 a 7½	May.....	8 a 11½	8 a 11½
December.....	6½ a 7½	6½ a 7½	June.....	8 a 11½	8 a 10½
January.....	7 a 9	6½ a 7½	July.....	8½ a 11	8½ a 10½
February.....	7 a 9½	7 a 9	August.....	8½ a 12	8½ a 11

4.—MOLASSES TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

ANNUAL STATEMENT OF IMPORTS, EXPORTS, STOCKS, ESTIMATED CONSUMPTION, &c., FOR THE YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31ST, 1851, EXCLUSIVE OF CALIFORNIA AND OREGON.

Receipts at New-York.	Hhds.	Tes.	Bbls.	VALUE, 1ST JAN.—	
				1850.	1851.
From Cuba.....	54014	3899	3606	15½ a 22	22 a 26
.. Porto Rico.....	15401	555	477	16 a 26	23 a 30
.. St. Croix.....	1430	—	11	17 a 27	—
.. Surinam.....	814	65	82	17 a 20	—
.. Other foreign ports.....	503	—	—	a —	—
Total receipts of foreign in 1851.....	72162	4519	4176
Same time last year.....	48484	2882	1060
From Louisiana, in 1851.....	479	572	31858	25 a 27	— a 33
.. Other coastwise ports.....	12009	672	8334	—	—
Total receipts in 1851.....	84650	5763	44368	—	—
Same time last year.....	68816	5645	46320	—	—
Increase.....	15834	118	—	—	—
Decrease.....	—	—	—	—	1952

Total receipts at New-York, from January 1st, to December 31st.

	1851.			1850.		
	Hhds.	Tes.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Tes.	Bbls.
Total receipts, as above.....	84650	5763	44368	68816	5645	46320
Add stock, 1st January.....	3300	—	800	300	40	700
Total supply.....	87950	5763	45168	69116	5685	47020
Deduct exports and shipments to Canada.....	106	—	82	308	—	270
	87944	5763	45086	68808	5685	4675
Deduct stock, December 31.....	4000	—	500	3300	—	80
Taken from this port for consumption.....	83844	5763	44586	65508	5685	4595
—Or, about, in 1851.....	—	—	—	12,253,710	gallons.	—
Of which foreign, imported direct.....	—	—	—	9,107,780	gallons.	—
Or about, in 1850.....	—	—	—	10,029,028	gallons.	—
Of which foreign, imported direct.....	—	—	—	5,716,486	gallons.	—
Total consumption, 1851.....	—	—	—	12,253,710	gallons.	—
Total consumption, 1850.....	—	—	—	10,029,028	gallons.	—
Excess in 1851.....	—	—	—	2,224,682	gallons.	—

Total receipts at New-York, from foreign and coastwise ports.

	Hhds.	Tes.	Bbls.		Hhds.	Tes.	Bbls.
1851.....	84,650.....	5,763.....	44,368.....	1846.....	73,822.....	5,168.....	23,557.....
1850.....	68,816.....	5,645.....	46,320.....	1845.....	62,506.....	5,780.....	33,127.....
1849.....	66,526.....	6,592.....	58,051.....	1844.....	63,898.....	5,010.....	23,104.....
1848.....	76,047.....	6,576.....	42,333.....	1843.....	54,335.....	4,674.....	27,563.....
1847.....	76,971.....	5,831.....	21,473.....	1842.....	49,726.....	5,165.....	24,524.....

Received from foreign ports, from January 1, to December 31.

	1851.			1850.		
	Hhds.	Tes.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Tes.	Bbls.
At New-York.....	79162.....	4519.....	4176.....	48484.....	2882.....	1060.....
Boston, from Cuba, etc.....	55147.....	4225.....	1962.....	59144.....	3821.....	1165.....
Portland, from Cuba, etc.....	56800.....	4192.....	1118.....	35788.....	1660.....	771.....
Providence, from Cuba, etc.....	4715.....	367.....	124.....	5550.....	206.....	90.....
New-Haven—P. Rico, etc.....	9156.....	127.....	18.....			
B'tol & Warren, Cuba, etc.....	6325.....	79.....	141.....			
Newb'port, Gloucester, do.,	4511.....	165.....	68.....	17330.....	322.....	241.....
Other East ports, Cuba, etc.,	1858.....	74.....	114.....			
Philadelphia—from Cuba.....	20870.....	1534.....	702.....	20048.....	1558.....	315.....
P. Rico.....	2136.....	115.....	8.....	2033.....	63.....	12.....
Baltimore—Cuba, P. Rico.....	7638.....	2329.....	308.....	6815.....	527.....	294.....
New-Orleans—from Cuba.....	6248.....	—.....	16505.....	—.....	—.....	—.....
Other southern ports, Cuba,	10422.....	894.....	724.....	8620.....	710.....	544.....
Total.....	267688.....	18620.....	95268.....	203812.....	11749.....	4501.....

Receipts of foreign in United States.

	Hhds.	Tes.	Bbls.
Total receipts, from January 1, to December 31, 1851.....	257,688.....	18,620.....	25,368.....
Add stock at all the ports, January 1, 1851.....	12,800.....	310.....	250.....
Total supply.....	270,488.....	18,930.....	25,518.....
Deduct exports in 1851.....	2,365.....	408.....	239.....
	268,123.....	18,522.....	25,279.....
Deduct stock, 1st January, 1852.....	11,200.....	327.....	252.....
Total consumption of foreign in 1851.....	256,923.....	18,195.....	25,027.....
—Or, about.....	33,238,278.....	gallons.	
Add crop of Louisiana, Texas, Florida, etc., of 1850-'51, (the most of which came to market in 1851, and assuming the stock of this description, 1st January of each year to be equal).....	10,709,740.....	gallons.	
Would make the whole consumption in 1851.....	43,948,018.....	gallons.	
Consumption of foreign in 1850.....	24,806,949.....	gallons.	
Add crop of Louisiana, Texas, Florida, etc., of 1849-'50.....	12,912,300.....	..	

Would make the whole consumption in 1850..... 37,019,249 ..
 Whole excess in 1851..... 6,928,769 ..
 Excess of foreign in 1851..... 8,431,329 ..
 It will be seen by the above statement, that the increase in the consumption of foreign in the country, in 1851, is equal to about 34 per cent. over the consumption of 1850. It will be remembered, however, that the crop of Louisiana, Texas, etc., in 1850-'51, was 1,502,560 gallons short of the production of the previous season, which induced larger importations the past year, even New-Orleans having taken equal to 1,227,435 gallons of Cuba to supply the deficiency. The crop of Louisiana, etc., the present season, is estimated to be a full average one.—[N. Y. Shipping List.

5.—BANK CAPITAL OF THE SEVERAL STATES.

TABLE, SHOWING THE POPULATION IN THE YEAR 1850, THE NUMBER OF BANKS, BANK CAPITAL, BANK CIRCULATION, AND COIN, OF EACH OF THE STATES, DECEMBER, 1851.

NOTE.—In those states marked with an asterisk (*) the amounts are, in part, estimated, but it is believed that they approximate the respective amounts at this date.

In Illinois a free banking system has been submitted to the people, and, at a popular election this year, approved by them. In this state there will probably soon be established several banks of circulation, based upon state stocks.

In Florida, a law was passed last winter authorizing the establishment of a bank at Tallahassee; but we do not learn that it has been yet organized. In the states of Illinois and Arkansas, the circulation of the Kentucky, Missouri and Indiana banks, is generally used.

[From the Bankers' Magazine, Boston.]

State.	Population, 1850.	No. of Banks.	Bank Capital.	Bank Circulation.	Bank Colu.
Maine.....	583,000....	38....	\$4,098,000....	\$3,200,000....	\$630,000
New-Hampshire...	318,000....	25....	2,586,000....	2,120,000....	140,000
Vermont.....	314,000....	31....	2,685,000....	3,377,000....	180,000
Massachusetts.....	994,000....	137....	43,350,000....	17,000,000....	3,000,000
Rhode Island.....	148,000....	69....	12,338,502....	3,000,000....	350,000
Connecticut.....	371,000....	47....	13,175,675....	6,640,000....	800,000
New-York.....	3,090,000....	218....	58,497,345....	27,200,000....	7,000,000
New-Jersey.....	490,000....	25....	4,019,900....	3,500,000....	750,000
Pennsylvania.....	2,311,000....	54....	18,966,351....	12,000,000....	6,200,000
* Delaware.....	91,000....	9....	1,440,000....	1,000,000....	250,000
* Maryland.....	583,000....	26....	9,287,395....	3,700,000....	3,000,000
District of Columbia,	52,000....	4....	1,182,300....	350,000....	300,000
Virginia.....	1,421,000....	39....	10,214,600....	11,600,000....	3,650,000
North Carolina.....	869,000....	22....	4,305,000....	4,600,000....	2,000,000
* South Carolina.....	669,000....	14....	11,431,183....	7,500,000....	2,600,000
* Georgia.....	906,000....	18....	5,629,215....	4,300,000....	1,700,000
* Alabama.....	772,000....	2....	2,000,000....	3,500,000....	1,800,000
Indiana.....	989,000....	14....	2,082,151....	3,680,000....	1,300,000
* Iowa.....	192,000....	1....	500,000....	100,000....	50,000
Kentucky.....	952,000....	26....	10,180,000....	7,450,000....	3,300,000
Louisiana.....	500,000....	5....	12,267,150....	3,500,000....	4,300,000
Michigan.....	398,000....	4....	762,000....	650,000....	150,000
Missouri.....	682,000....	6....	1,208,751....	2,400,000....	1,500,000
Ohio.....	1,977,000....	61....	7,866,376....	11,635,000....	2,800,000
Tennessee.....	1,003,000....	23....	8,405,197....	5,300,000....	1,900,000
* Texas.....	187,000....	1....	300,000....	400,000....	200,000
* Wisconsin.....	304,000....	1....	225,000....	250,000....	100,000
Illinois.....	858,000....	—....	none.	none.	—
Florida.....	87,000....	—....	none.	none.	—
Arkansas.....	210,000....	—....	none.	none.	—
* Mississippi.....	503,000....	1....	100,000....	100,000....	50,000
California.....	200,000....	—....	—	—	—
Total.....	33,144,000....	921....	\$248,803,961....	\$150,052,000....	\$50,000,000

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—FRUIT CULTURE FOR THE SOUTH.

WE have so many inquiries from different parts of the South upon the different branches of fruit culture, that we deem we cannot answer all more effectually than to republish our treatise upon fruit culture at the South, submitted to the first Fair of the Russell and Muscogee Agricultural Society. Since our visit to the Macon Fair, we are more than ever convinced of the beautiful adaptation of our climate to the growth and full perfection of all the fruits described. Will some of our southern readers add to the list the culture of the orange, lemon, pine-apple, date, olive and guava, as adapted to portions of Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Louisiana and Texas? In the culture of these fruits we have no experience, and shall feel under obligations if some one having experience will come to our aid.—[*Soil of the South.*]

APPLE.—All the fine varieties of this fruit have been produced from the wild apple; and to the monks of the middle ages are we indebted for the first great improvements in fruit culture. The cultivated apples in the United States were introduced from Europe by seeds and by cuttings, and although the wild crab grows in almost every state in the Union, no edible variety is indigenous. The great difficulty in cultivating the apple here, is in the fact, that almost all the trees originated in a colder climate, and a change of climate is almost certain to pro-

duce disease. It is immaterial whether a tree, cutting or bud, is brought from a cold climate, for the bud contains all the elements of the tree, its health, and its diseases. This, no doubt, is the reason why most of our apple orchards are so short-lived, ten to fifteen years being their average length of life. If we would cultivate the apple successfully, we must propagate it from seeds, and improve upon them, and when we once get a good variety, propagate from it, by root-grafting. Apple seeds should be planted in the fall, or if delayed until spring, warm water should be poured over the seeds until they sprout, which will be in about three days, and then the seed planted, will grow from three to six feet the first year, and produce fruit in three or four years from seed; out of a lot of seedlings, in all probability there will be some good fruit; these may be propagated by root-grafting, which is the most certain and speedy way of propagation in this climate. This may be done from the first of February to the first of April. Take seedling roots of one year's growth, cut them off about one inch lower than they came out of the ground; now split the remaining stem just enough to take in the graft. The grafts should be taken from fruit-bearing trees, and from wood of last year's growth; cut the grafts with two or three buds, and as many as possible with terminal buds; take a sharp knife, and cut the end of the graft in a wedge form, commencing at the lower bud; now insert it in the root, taking care to keep the two outside barks together; plant the root either in the nursery, or where the tree is to stand, leaving the terminal and one other bud above the ground; be careful in pressing the earth around the graft, that it is not moved from the union of its bark with the bark of the root. In any good soil, the graft will grow from four to six feet the first year, and will produce fruit the second or third year. The graft has now become a tree, and to be made productive, must be cultivated, nursed and tended. It will grow on almost any rich soil, and it is useless to cultivate the apple unless the soil is rich. Where the soil is not naturally rich, the roots should annually receive a top dressing of some good vegetable matter, with a little lime or ashes. The tree should be pruned, so as to throw out its branches low, to shade the trunk from the intense heat of our summer's sun, which frequently blisters the bark, causing disease and death. The ground of the orchard should be regularly cultivated, taking care not to injure the roots. One of the best methods ever adopted in this climate, is to shade the whole grounds of the orchard with straw—wheat, oat, or pine straw. This preserves an even temperature, keeps the ground cool and moist, and gives the tree an astonishing vigor and beauty. There are four insects which are great enemies to the apple in this section—the borer, the moth, the bark louse, and the black worm, which infest the roots. The best remedy for the borer and the bark louse, is to rub the trunk and limbs of the tree with soft country soap; this not only destroys the insects, but invigorates the tree, and also effectually prevents rabbits from barking them; for the black worm around the base of the tree, ashes or lime may be used with advantage, and are a good preventive—but where the worm has already begun his ravages, take a sharp knife and pick him out, filling up all the worm holes and wounds with soft soap. The moth that produces the apple worm may be destroyed by picking up all the fruit that falls, and feeding it to hogs, or by permitting hogs to run in the orchard.

If the people of the South will discard northern raised apple trees, and raise their own seedlings, we may have the apple in as great perfection here as any where else; for wherever the wild crab grows, there may the improved varieties be grown also. It is true, the apple tree will not be as long lived here as at the North, but they come into bearing so much sooner. It is stated of the celebrated green Gage plum, that out of several bushels of seed planted, and raised to bearing, the green Gage was the only one out of the whole lot worth cultivating; and if we can, by planting bushels of apple seeds, produce one that shall hold rank as a fruit with the green Gage, it would be the greatest acquisition to fruit culture that has ever beamed upon the South; and it can be done—all it wants is patience and perseverance. The greatest real difficulty that we have to contend with, is the speedy decay of the fruit, after it has matured. Whenever we find a remedy for this, the South will have nothing to fear in the culture of the apple.

THE PEAR.—The pear is a native of Europe and Asia, and was first introduced into this country by French settlers. There is no fruit that has been more improved by the horticulturist's skill than the pear. In its native state, it is even more unpalatable than the crab, and is termed choke pear. It is now made melting, sugary, and buttery. Van Mons, the celebrated Belgium pomologist, has produced eighty thousand new seedling pears, many of them of exquisite flavor, and all said to be worthy of cultivation. The pear tree is not as subject to disease in this climate as the apple, nor is the fruit as subject to the attacks of insects. The tree is somewhat longer in coming into bearing, but if it be grafted from fruit-bearing trees, on pear, apple, or quince roots, as directed for the apple, it will bear in four or five years after grafting. It is much longer lived than the apple, and there can be no doubt but many of the southern states are better adapted to pear culture than the northern. Here we never have that scourge of northern pear trees, the frozen sap blight, nor has the fire blight made its appearance here. Take it altogether, it is the hardiest fruit cultivated at the South, and the wonder is, why it is not more extensively cultivated. The pear will grow in any soil that will produce corn, but it most delights in a light, rich loam, impregnated with iron; for this reason, blacksmiths' cinders have been found valuable to apply around pear trees. They may be propagated by seeds where new varieties are wanted, and grafts where a new and valuable kind is to be propagated. It will take some more patience to rear seedlings than from the apple, as the pear seldom bears from seed under ten to fifteen years, and frequently not under twenty; but as the tree has not the principles of decay stamped upon it that the apple has, grafts may be brought from any country where the pear has been brought to the highest state of perfection, and those who choose to experiment may try the seed. The southern states are as well adapted to the pear as Belgium. I saw Dr. Camak, of Athens, exhibiting forty-five varieties of pears at the Fair, at Atlanta, all the produce of his own orchard, and most of them of superior quality. One great advantage the pear has over all other fruits raised here, is its long-keeping quality, which should commend it to southern cultivators; there are many varieties that may be kept through the whole winter, ripening entirely in the house, after picking, which will place the pear first on the list of southern cultivated fruits. The pear needs little or no pruning, and to render it dwarf in its habits, graft it on quince stocks; this is particularly well adapted to garden culture, and brings them into bearing sooner than standard trees.

THE PEACH.—The peach is a native of Asia, and was first introduced into Europe by the Romans, and into this country by the early settlers. It is easily propagated, either by seeds, cuttings, or graftings. Peaches come into bearing in this climate, from the seed, in two and three years; but as there is no certainty of producing the same variety from seed, as the parent tree, cuttings or grafting must be resorted to. In grafting the peach, graft in roots of peach, plum, or apricot, one year old, as directed for the apple; this method of grafting is easier than budding, and altogether superior; for, as the graft is inserted below the surface of the ground, the whole tree is of the grafted variety; they will grow from six to eight feet the first season, and will bear fruit the second; the grafting should be done just as the buds begin to swell; pinch off all the blossom buds, and leave the terminal and one side bud above the surface of the ground. A rich, sandy loam, suits the peach best, and imparts the finest flavor to the fruit. The great enemy to the peach in this country, is the peach worm; this is a worm much resembling a flat head, which preys upon the tree near the roots, frequently eating entirely round the trunk, causing death to the tree; they may easily be detected by the black gummy substance exuding around the base of the tree. There are many remedies and preventives recommended; lime and ashes are good preventives; scrape away the earth around the base of the tree, and fill in with some good air-slaked lime, or good fresh ashes; renew this every spring; but where the worm has got already a good hold, I have never found anything so effectual as boiling water, turned from the spout of a tea-kettle; be careful and not apply too much water at a time, as it might kill the tree; but a moderate quantity not only kills all the eggs and worms, but seems to invigorate the tree. The worm is produced by a fly, which deposits

eggs in the bark around the base, and they hatch out a white flat worm and commence their work of destruction immediately. Another pest to peach culture, is the worm in the fruit, from the wooly down on the young peach. The fruit is not as subject to the attacks of insects as the plum, and if hogs are allowed to run in the peach orchard, they effectually keep down the insect, as they eat all the falling fruit, destroying the insect with it. A peach crop, to come to its highest perfection, should be tilled with as much assiduity as corn or cotton. The great fault with southern peach culturists is, they are not satisfied with the yield of peaches, but they must annually crop the peach orchard, and it must yield corn or cotton, as well as peaches. A peach orchard, planted twenty feet each way, will require every inch of soil in the intervening spaces for the roots, to perfect the trunk, foliage, flowers, and fruit; and every crop taken from a peach orchard, is just so much taken from the productiveness of the trees. This may be objected to by some, who have tried some crops amongst their trees with apparent good results; but in cultivating the crops, the trees got more culture than usual, and showed an increased production over the season when they were in the turf. If the trees bore better by cultivating a crop amongst them, how much better would they been cultivated without the crop! It is a well established fact, that all grain crops are positively injurious to fruit trees. The proper time for pruning in this climate is July; the wound then heals quickly, and as peaches are only made on new wood, it is best to shorten in the branches, to induce the limbs to make new wood, which will give plenty of fruit for next season. A serious difficulty the peach has to contend with here, is the late spring frosts. The warm days of winter swell the bud, and the first genial day of spring it bursts forth in its tenderness and beauty, but to be blackened and blighted by a lingering frost. For this reason, peaches should never be planted on low, wet lands, or in the vicinity of streams of water, as they are much more liable to be killed by frosts than when planted on high and dry lands. As to varieties, there are seedling peaches raised on many of our plantations that will compare favorably with any of the grafts of France; and whoever may wish to start a peach orchard, need not go out of Georgia for varieties. Peach seed should be planted immediately after eating the fruit. It is frequently observed that self-planted peaches make the most vigorous trees, and the reason is, they had a better start.

[To be continued.]

2.—AGRICULTURAL CHEMISTRY IN THE SOUTH.

Nothing could be made more important to the South than the application of the light which chemistry adds to agriculture; and yet how little attention is paid to this matter among us. We see that a proposal has been made in Mississippi for the appointment of a state chemist, whose duties are intended to cover the whole field. We trust that the movement will be successful, and that it will be imitated throughout all the South.

"The Committee on Agriculture of the Senate of that state, have reported a bill creating the office of *Agricultural Chemist*—an officer whose indicated duties would be as various as they would certainly prove utilitarian and useful.

"The committee's bill provides for the division of the state into three agricultural districts—if we may so term them—which districts shall be the same as the supreme judicial districts, into which the state is now divided. In each of these districts, the Agricultural Chemist is required to spend one-third of the year, and one month in each county of the districts, in the order of their enumeration, if deemed necessary. He is required to analyze one specimen of all varieties of soil in the county where he may be, and one specimen of rural, or other mineral deposit. He is further required to give one public lecture in each police district of the county, and subsequently a course of public lectures in each county town, and to permit the Clerk of the Board of Police to transcribe a copy of the same for deposit in his office, and for publication, if deemed expedient by the Board. It is also made his duty to make an annual report to the legislature, if in session, and if not, to the governor, who shall cause the publication of the same."

Whilst on this subject we will say, that Professor J. Laurence Smith, of the University of Louisiana, who was for several years geologist and mining engineer for the Sultan of Turkey, proposes to undertake all chemical analyses of minerals, soils, mineral waters, commercial articles, in his laboratory, connected with the University. Professor Smith has established a scientific reputation as well in Europe as in our own country.

We also add, that Mr. Judd, who is endorsed by the distinguished Professor Norton, of Yale College, proposes to analyze earths and products, and makes an appeal to the planters, which we copy, in the hope it will be answered.

YALE ANALYTICAL LABORATORY, }
New-Haven, Jan. 7th, 1852. }

Mr. Editor.—During the last summer I made some experiments upon the ash of a stalk of a cotton plant, which I procured from Louisiana. The results of a qualitative and quantitative determination of this ash, were read by Prof. Norton, at the Albany meeting of the American Scientific Association, and will be published in the forthcoming volume of Transactions.

I should like to make a series of analyses of the ashes from the different parts of this important plant, especially the stalk, cotton, and seed of different varieties, from various localities, and also a general examination of some soils, upon which the different varieties are best produced. The extensive cultivation of so important a staple product, demands a much more careful and extended examination of its chemical relation to the soil, than has yet been even attempted.

If I can obtain suitable and authentic samples, from the analysis of which general results may be arrived at, I will cheerfully devote the time from now till next August, to such analysis.

I write to inquire whether there are not among some of your correspondents, gentlemen who, for the sake of obtaining an examination of their own products and soils, or those in their vicinity, would be at the expense of procuring and forwarding suitable specimens?

To accomplish much before the middle of August, it would be necessary to begin very soon.

If certain that a sufficient number of specimens could be procured to accomplish the result aimed at, I would begin upon the first that could be obtained, and take up the others as they came forward.

Yours, respectfully,

ORANGE JUDD.

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES AND MINING.

1.—CONSUMPTION OF COTTON IN MANUFACTURES.

Messrs. Du Fay & Co., of Manchester, have published the following interesting table, giving a comparative estimate of the quantities of raw cotton consumed in the principal manufacturing countries, in millions of weight, from 1836 to 1851. The figures for the United States are much too low.

	1836.	1840.	1845.	1849.	1851.
Great Britain, (millions of lbs.).....	350	473	597	627	648
Russia, Germany, Holland, and Belgium. 57.....	72	96	160	118	
France, (including adjacent countries). 118.....	157	158	186	149	
Spain.....	—	—	—	—	34
Mediterranean.....	—	—	—	—	12
Countries bordering on the Adriatic.....	28	28	38	47	45
United States of North America.....	86	111	158	205	158
Sundries.....	—	—	—	—	11
Total.....	639	841	1047	1225	1175

2.—THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOUTHERN RESOURCES THE BEST GUARANTEE FOR THE PROTECTION OF SOUTHERN RIGHTS.

By W. SYKES, of Tennessee.

What measures should be adopted by the southern states for the protection of their rights, is a question of great interest at this time. We are well satisfied that the development of southern resources is the best guarantee for the protection of southern rights. Before proceeding to show what measures the South should at this time adopt, we will notice one source of apprehension to many southern men. They think that in the course of a few years several additional free states will be admitted into the Union; that the equilibrium between the free and slave states will be forever destroyed; and that the free states, having an overwhelming majority in both branches of Congress and in the electoral college, as well as of the popular vote, will either attempt to change the Constitution, or will so construe it as materially to affect the rights of the South. They think, in that event, the South will be unable successfully to resist, since she will be growing weaker every day, and therefore they are in favor of seceding from the Union *now*, and of establishing a Southern Confederacy, where their rights will be secure and their property unmolested. However much we may differ from these men, we cannot deny their sincerity, and we are compelled to admit, that the course pursued by a certain portion of the northern people justifies their suspicions. For our own part, we think their apprehensions are not well grounded, at least we hope they are not. That the North will have a majority in both branches of Congress and in the electoral college, as well as of the popular vote, we do not deny. This is unavoidable; but when this takes place, it does not follow that they will attempt any serious interference with our rights. It is certain they will not, if the SOUTH PRESENTS UNITED RESISTANCE. So far from the South becoming weaker every day, it will, by the development of its resources, increase in strength, and become more and more necessary to the North. The North is dependent upon the South in a commercial point of view, and must so continue whilst the South grows cotton, sugar, rice, tobacco, and other productions, which never can be grown in the North. This would be the case if there were thirty instead of sixteen free states, and would always prevent the North from any serious interference with the rights of the South. If the South would be united, and would satisfy the North that any such interference would inevitably result in the secession of all the slave holding states. There need not, therefore, be any apprehension on account of the increase in the number of free states. The southern states, though weaker in numbers than the northern, will, by the aid of their great staples, which are in fact the life-blood of northern manufactures and northern commerce, be able to defend themselves and to resist any encroachments upon southern rights.

Having disposed of this matter, we now propose to consider what measures should be adopted by the South at this time, not as preparatory steps to disunion, but as a means of self-defence. We should now adopt the policy of improving our own section, and of availing ourselves of our natural advantages, which are so great. Hitherto we have been dependent upon other sections for most of the necessaries, comforts, and luxuries of life. We have been an agricultural people exclusively, and, as a matter of course, others have grown rich by manufacturing our raw material, and by having control of that commerce which legitimately belonged to us. We do not deny that the operations of the general government have thrown the greatest portion of the public burdens upon the South, whilst other sections have derived the greatest benefits.

The protective tariff and internal improvement systems have borne heavily upon the rights and interests of the South, whilst the North has been greatly benefited by them. But in this respect a decided change for the better has taken place. The tariff and internal improvement systems will never again, we sincerely hope, and believe, be the established policy of the government. The South will never again be compelled to pay tribute to the North in the way of protective duties, nor will the general government build up a system of internal improvements at the expense of the South for the benefit of the North. In these particulars the condition of the South is better than it has been in a number of years. Free trade, the favorite doctrine of the South, is destined hereafter to be

the established policy of the government. Under the present tariff, manufactures have increased in all sections of the Union, but especially in the South.

The quantity of cotton consumed in the United States was, for the year ending 30th September :

	Bales.	Value.
1846	470,597	\$15,764,999
1850	595,269	26,484,470
Increase	124,672	10,719,471

This shows an increase of one hundred and twenty-four thousand six hundred and seventy-two bales of cotton consumed in the United States in 1850, over the amount in 1846, the last year the tariff of 1842 was in operation. Again : the value of cotton goods exported from the United States in 1846, was \$3,545,481, and in 1850, it was \$4,734,424. These facts show that the manufacturing interests, particularly in the South, have not been injured by the present tariff. It has been estimated by the able commercial correspondent of the Washington Union, that coarse cotton goods can be manufactured much cheaper in the South than at the North. This is owing to the fact, that the South has the raw material in her midst, and has also an abundance of cheap provisions, together with the finest water power in the Union, and immense quantities of coal and timber, if steam power should be considered preferable. This same writer estimates that "a mill at the South, turning out 100,000 yards per week, will net \$800 profit, when the New-Englander, if he runs, will lose \$600."

This accounts for the increase of factories in the South, whilst some at the North, it is said, have been compelled to stop operations on account of the high prices of cotton last winter.

No country can compete successfully with the southern states in the manufacture of coarse cottons. Our natural advantages afford us ample protection, and we can, if we will use the proper energy, have not only a monopoly of cotton growing, but also of cotton manufacturing. To do this, we need no government aid, no tariff for protection. This is the first step we should take for the promotion of our interests. To estimate the importance of the cotton growing interest of the southern states, it is only necessary to state, that in the year 1849 there were, in Great Britain, Europe, and the United States, 3,323,365 bales of cotton consumed, and 873,634 operatives employed, and 671 millions of dollars invested in the manufacture of cotton. Of this large consumption about 2,800,000 bales are from the southern states of this Union. The value of cotton exported from the United States the year ending 30th June, 1850, was \$71,984,616. The fabrics manufactured out of this cotton furnish clothing to millions of human beings; and a failure of the cotton crop of the United States would, therefore, be one of the greatest calamities that could befall mankind. Why is it, then, with this great staple at our very doors, we cannot manufacture at least a considerable portion of it ourselves, and thereby reap some of the profits which are made by other countries out of our productions? This may be done without resorting to disunion, or to a tax upon articles manufactured at the North, the constitutionality of which measure is, to say the least of it, extremely questionable. Let our state legislature manifest becoming liberality towards our works of improvement, and they will thus do more to aid the South than can be done by angry discussion and high sounding resolutions.

The establishment of factories, the building of rail-roads, and the development of our mineral resources, will do more to make the South truly independent and to secure her rights, than all the southern congresses which can ever assemble. She needs a change in her policy more than she does a change of the Constitution, to secure additional guarantees to southern rights. We have not only been dependent upon the North for our manufactures, but also in a great degree for literary instruction. A considerable portion of the support of northern

schools has been from the South. This should no longer be the case. We should build up literary institutions in the South fully equal, if not superior, to those of the North, and we should educate our sons and daughters at home. We should also encourage our own mechanics, instead of buying every thing from other countries. This will enable them to sell at reduced prices, and at the same time to furnish better articles. Can any sensible reason be assigned why the South cannot furnish facilities for a high order of scholarship as well as the North, and why we may not equal them in every branch of industry?

There is none; and the sooner public attention is directed to this subject the better will it be for the southern states. No state in the Union possesses more of the elements of wealth than our own. We have iron ore equal to that of Pennsylvania, water power not surpassed by that of Massachusetts, and coal equal to that found in any state of the Union. It is true, we need works of internal improvement to enable us to carry our manufactures to market, and to aid in the development of our resources; but these can, and we trust will be made at an early day. The feeling in favor of a wise system of internal improvements is continually increasing among the people. It is growing too strong to be resisted much longer, and must become the settled policy of the state. South Carolina, Georgia, and Virginia, have all tried the experiment, and the good effects are seen in the enhanced value of their lands, the growing prosperity of their towns, the increase of their population, and the activity in all branches of industry. The interest which has been and is now manifested in the East Tennessee Rail-roads, in the Nashville and Louisville, in the Nashville and New-Orleans, in the Memphis and Charleston, in the Nashville and Mississippi River Rail-roads, and also in the extension of the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road through West Tennessee, and from its terminus on the Tennessee River through Columbia to Nashville, indicates that the people of Tennessee are becoming aroused to the importance of works of internal improvement. We shall not now attempt to show the necessity of these improvements, as that subject has already been sufficiently discussed; suffice it to say, that when these improvements are made, Tennessee will be one of the first states in the Union. It is to be hoped that our legislature will be governed by a liberal spirit in regard to works of internal improvement, having at the same time a due regard to the interests and security of the state. In this way true devotion can be manifested to southern rights.

3.—GOLD MINES IN VIRGINIA.

Within the past three years several rich mines have been opened and worked successfully in different sections of the state.

The attention of the world has been awakened to the importance of this branch of mining. Since the discovery of the mineral wealth of California, thousands have flocked to that distant country, incurring great risks and deprivations, in the hope of realizing their fortunes. A few have turned their attention to the same business nearer home, where success has generally attended their labors, while many of the sanguine wanderers who ventured their all are returning, after a year's absence, broken in health and spirits, no richer than when they left.

We believe Commodore Stockton was one of the first who introduced into Virginia effective machinery for reducing on a large scale, the quartz rock, and demonstrating that a profitable business could be done in this branch of mining.

Some three years since he purchased the tract of land in Fluvanna county, about sixty miles distant from this city, upon which was a rich and extensive gold vein, where he erected a large mill and other works. The glowing accounts received from California of the richness and extent of the auriferous quartz of that country, induced Commodore Stockton to suspend for a time his mining operations in this state, and to send his experienced workmen, with complete outfit, machinery, &c., to test the newly-discovered gold veins in California.

We are informed by a friend who conversed a short time since with one of

the company, that they were not successful, the results not meeting expectations; their operations were discontinued in that country, the workmen returned to this state, and Commodore Stockton has resumed his mining operations in Fluvanna county on a larger scale than heretofore, having introduced improved machinery, and has good prospects of doing a profitable and permanent business.

There are several other gold mines in operation in this state, and are said to be doing well.

We have taken some pains to gain information on this subject, believing, as we do, that as the country becomes settled, and improved machinery introduced, *this branch of mining* in our state at no very distant day will produce an annual amount of the precious metal that will go far towards furnishing us with a *solid basis* for our currency.

The mines of William M. Moseley & Co., and the Garnett Mining Company in Buckingham county, are perhaps paying larger dividends to the stockholders on their outlay than any other mines in this state.

We have seen specimens of the quartz from this vein unequalled in richness by any auriferous quartz ever shown us. We were recently shown a large rock weighing 108 pounds, with the gold visible all through it, with many other specimens which were taken from the Garnett vein at ninety feet from the surface, at which depth the vein is from sixteen to twenty feet wide, all carrying gold.

There are several shafts sunk upon the vein, and galleries opened some six hundred feet in length, where the mills of these two companies are situated near together and on the same vein.

Six miles from these mines are two other mills, worked by Mr. Eldridge and Mr. Wiseman, which are said to be doing very well.—*Richmond Whig.*

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

THE LATE SOUTH-WESTERN RAIL-ROAD CONVENTION AT NEW-ORLEANS.

CONDITION AND PROSPECTS OF NEW-ORLEANS, AND WHAT SHE MUST DO FOR
RAIL-ROADS, &c.

SPEECH OF JAMES ROBB, ESQ., OF NEW-ORLEANS.

Mr. President and Gentlemen of the Convention:

The resolutions presented, it will be seen, embrace three modes of raising the means of constructing railroads—to wit: First, by memorializing Congress for donations of public lands; secondly, by voluntary subscriptions; and third, by taxation. The resolutions are written by Mr. Benjamin, and I trust will meet the unanimous approval of the Convention, as they have that of the Committee, whose organ I have the honor to be.

In presenting these resolutions, I desire to submit some observations to the Convention, for which I pray their kind indulgence. I am sure the Convention will not doubt my sincerity, when I declare to you my great distrust and diffidence in appearing before you in my present attitude—a diffidence arising from the habits of my life, which have given me no opportunities of cultivating a talent for public speaking, even if I possessed it. But there are occasions when all of us may—nay, ought to throw aside embarrassments of this nature, in order to contribute our mite to the public safety and advancement. We owe it to our country—to the community which supports and nourishes us, to make that sacrifice. No one is more sensible of this obligation than I am. Fourteen years ago I came here, a young man, without means or friends. Fortune has dealt kindly by me. I owe to this city and state the prosperity which I enjoy, and I should be recreant of every noble feeling of humanity if I did not seek to repay the favor and nourishment I have received, by a devotion of my capacity and energies to the advancement of the interests and welfare of our city and state. My interests, be-

sides, are identified with those of this community ; my attachments, sympathies—all my feelings cling to this great South-west, for whose honor and advancement this intelligent assembly has convened.

Prompted by these motives, I come forward, in my humble sphere, to urge upon you a vigorous, liberal and enlarged action on the great subject of internal improvements in the South-west. I shall speak to you with the candor of a citizen, and with the directness of a banking-house. I shall speak to you of what I regard as our duties, with manly freedom and frankness.

What is the object of this Convention ? We meet, gentlemen, not to carry out any local end or enterprise, but collect the opinions of a large assembly of the intelligent citizens of a number of states, which, though separated by boundary lines and by distance, have great common interests. These opinions will go forth to the people, to enlighten, guide and direct them into the true path of their honor and interest ;—they will go forth, not as the opinions of individuals, but as a combined expression of the views of a body, the superior of which, in point of patriotism and intelligence, has never been assembled in this country.

Speaking in behalf of the city which I have the honor, in part, to represent on this floor, I desire to direct the attention of the Convention to some remarks, which have already been referred to by my senatorial colleague, Mr. Benjamin, relative to the position and circumstances of New-Orleans. Gentlemen came here from other states, with the idea that New-Orleans was in desperate plight, and needed their assistance to rescue her declining fortunes. Such kindly proffers are gratefully appreciated, but Louisiana and New-Orleans have not yet sunk quite so low as that. They need no aid beyond their own limits. They would take care of themselves. They were going to build their own works, with their own labor and capital. Why, it is asked, has Louisiana failed in the rail-road undertakings heretofore ? Why have Arkansas, Alabama, Mississippi, also failed ? I answer, for the same reason that Louisiana has failed. We have all failed in our duty—failed in energy, enterprise, and an enlightened devotion to the interests of our highly-favored region of the Union. Let not all the blame, then, rest upon Louisiana. She has been, in a great measure, influenced by the state of affairs in New-Orleans ; and here we have had difficulties in the way of liberal public enterprises, of which gentlemen from the country cannot be fully aware. At the risk of offending some prejudice, I shall speak of some of these difficulties in a spirit of manly candor due to the subject and the occasion.

I had, recently, the honor of appearing before the Legislature of the gallant State of Tennessee, where I was received with a kindness for which I shall ever be deeply grateful. I went there to tell them, in all humility, the true state of our affairs—to explain to them the difficulties which embarrassed our actions, for which our sister states should make all due allowances. I told them that when Louisiana became a portion of our Union, a large class—embracing a majority of her population—were of a different nationality, and spoke a different language from that of the population of the other states ; but among this ancient population there prevailed as ardent a patriotism and devotion to the institutions of our common country, as ever animated the bosoms of any people. These nationalities and differences of language and customs were, however, seized upon by designing men, to excite ill-feelings and prejudices among our population, which were as fruitful of mischief as they were absurd in their character, and unfounded in reason or fact. From this state of feeling sprung that unfortunate measure, which I regard as one of the chief, if not the sole cause, of some of the embarrassments that have obstructed the progress of our city. I refer to the division of this city of 130,000 people into four separate municipal corporations, (for I include Lafayette.) This division may have been called for 1836, owing to the oppressive exercise of power by an excited majority, but the causes for it no longer exist now. No man who has at heart the interests of the city, can advocate its continuance. What has been the operation of this miserable system of municipal government ? Let us look at some of its fruits. In 1845, according to the report of the Finance Committee, the debt of the Second Municipality was \$2,099,000 ; to-day it is \$2,700,000. From the 1st of January, 1845, to the 1st of January, 1852—a period of seven years—the expenses of the Second Municipality had reached the enormous sum of over \$6,000,000, or near an annual outlay of \$900,000, or an average of \$30 to each inhabitant, of all ages, colors and conditions. This incredible ex-

penditure had been met by excessive levies of taxes on the property, capital and commerce of the municipality, with the income from loans, that had swelled its debts nearly \$100,000 per annum. Where has this enormous sum gone?—not to pay debts, they have increased; not to pay the interest on our debts, for that is not now paid; not to build improvements, for we have none. Where are the monuments that attest the application of this expenditure? We have none—nay, absolutely nothing. It has gone without leaving any memorial, but the inheritance of a profligate system of government, that is sinking the municipality every year deeper and deeper in debt and embarrassment—an inheritance that has changed hope into despair, and destroyed confidence at home and abroad. What applies to the Second Municipality, applies to all the others. Gentlemen of the country will, no doubt, be startled at these figures, and at the recital of such oppressions. Such would not be borne in any European city for an hour or a day.

The sympathies of our people have been appealed to in behalf of the people of Cuba, yet in that island the taxation does not much exceed \$12 to each inhabitant, and they enjoy a prosperity that does not exist here; whilst in the Second Municipality, the average taxation, in 1850, actually reached \$30 for each inhabitant. Attounding as all this seems, we have persons among us, influenced by old prejudices—persons who possess intelligence and property, who cling to our present divided system of government, which is destroying our credit, our property, and demoralizing our character. I make these admissions with humility, that you of the country may rightly understand our embarrassments.

We are without unity in our government—its very elements are destructive to sound and healthy public opinion, and fatal to public enterprise and public credit. What can be expected from four miserable governments in aiding great undertakings—in exalting the character of our people, that have only achieved the results I have clearly and truly stated? What would New-York be, divided and governed by four such governments? Would she do any better than we do? Would she have achieved the distinctions in improvements and commercial power, that challenge admiration from all parts of the civilized world? In this state of division New-Orleans cannot build a mile of rail-road; and for all the purposes of internal improvement, so far as the co-operation of the municipalities can be obtained, they might as well be twenty miles distant from each other. When we have gone before the Legislature to ask its aid, the country members say, gentlemen of the city, agree among yourselves, and we will consent to any law you may request. But such agreement has never been had; no union has ever existed, each division carried into the councils of the state its local animosities, prejudices and differences, regardless of the common good of the whole city.

Our country friends must stand by us and aid us to rid ourselves of this anomalous and tyrannical system, which is certainly at war with our best interests, and which undermines the credit and demoralizes the character of our city. We are, and have been, under the domination of office-holders—whose number is legion—whose influence is in active opposition to changes that curtail their power—whose love of spoil and dominion is above all considerations of the public good. We must tread down this power under our feet. We must declare our independence of all official dictation. We must abolish the whole system of divided government; and when we assemble again we will, I hope, present to you a consolidated and united city,—consolidated in interests, in feeling, in policy, in enterprise, and what is more, paying our honest debts, and redeemed in credit at home and abroad.

If we fail in doing all this, this Convention will fail in its objects—its labors will be futile and profitless. But we cannot and will not fail. I am sanguine of success, and that we shall carry out all the great schemes that have occupied your attention. Every citizen who has anything at stake, feels that our system of government is one of mischief—that its tendencies are to depreciate the value of his enterprise. The citizen without property, feels his chances of acquiring any are daily decreased—the citizen possessed of property, feels that his possessions are daily diminishing.

Such a condition of affairs takes away hope, and our people are full of doubts. Every man knows that with excessive and increasing taxation, and a perishing public credit, we cannot build improvements: but all know that the encouragements flowing from a good, efficient and economical government, will bring credit,

aid and ability to construct all the public improvements that interest us, in the valley of the Mississippi; that New-Orleans will then be carried forward to that noble and magnificent position in which nature placed her, as the mart of a vast and unequalled empire. When we have achieved the overthrow of our government, we shall stand shoulder to shoulder with you in all your great works. When New-Orleans has a good government, and high credit, what signifies then her debt? Large as we now consider it, under a united government, it would be a mere trifle. Let it once be known that New-Orleans is paying her debts, that she is one city, and this knowledge will be hastily transmitted through the medium of her commercial agencies to every capital in Europe. It is there that capital will be found in abundance, as it was twenty years ago, when the Bonds of the state, issued to the Union Bank, were the first on the list of American securities in London. It was the high character of our state abroad, and the knowledge of unrivaled resources, that then gave us credit. Our resources are not lessened, but greatly enlarged; and if we but regain the character we enjoyed by the practice of honesty, good faith and good government, millions of capital will be as certain to flow in upon us, as yon great stream moves majestically towards the gulf into which it passes its waters.

Let gentlemen who ask our aid for other improvements than those projected from our city, note my facts and consider them fairly, and not expect us to contribute millions to all the improvements of the Southwest. When we have commenced to build roads from our own limits, we must, with reference to our ability, first engage in the construction of those works imperiously demanded by the wants of our people, those works that will be most expedient, and will be most certain to recommend themselves to our people at large. These works completed, we will soon be in circumstances to render material aid to all works that promise usefulness. The favorable results of a few undertakings will awaken hopes and interests that are now timid and sensitive, and stimulate us to larger views, and aid to other projects contemplated in the Southwest.

The two great works which must for the present absorb our means and enterprise, are the great trunk line which is to complete the grand line of rail-road communication with the Atlantic cities and the Ohio valley, and the great Western line, which is to penetrate the vast country stretching for so great a distance west of the Mississippi. Our position is similar to that of New-York in 1809, when the necessity of developing the great western part of the state began to impress itself on the minds of the people. The splendid results you all know. New-Orleans has greater resources than New-York ever had, in the vast and fertile country west of the Mississippi. There lies her empire and power. Thence will pour into her lap wealth, which no imagination can grasp, and no figures compute.

These are the projects which at present engage our attention. To consummate them, is our present object and determination. In what manner, and by what means, is the question which occupied the serious consideration of the committee of ways and means. I propose to speak now to one of the propositions of the committee,—that of taxation of real estate, as a means of building rail-roads. I know that a proposition to tax in Louisiana, more than in any other part of the country, excites the deepest concern and opposition. We have good reasons for such sensibility. In New-Orleans the bare mention of a new tax is enough to alarm the boldest; but, gentlemen, I am in favor of the tax. The remedy is perfect terror to some of our people. I am a believer—and I am a fellow-sufferer on a large scale, but I have confidence and prefer the tax, to being without rail-roads, commerce and credit.—I am a believer in the sacred and inalienable rights of property, that the practical character of every government is the result of a state of property, and security of life; and that any government that fails in maintaining this great principle is not worth preserving. But let us examine the matter dispassionately, and see if the tax proposed is not a just and judicious one. What is the condition of property in Louisiana? In the rural parishes of the state we have lands, slaves, movables, machinery, and stock; in the city, landed property, means, houses and lots.

I advocate a uniform tax between the country and the city, because its operation is equal—because the lands of the country enjoy, perpetually, a benefit by the construction of rail-road improvements. I consider such a taxation as one of jus-

tics and policy in a country where the pursuits of the inhabitants are chiefly, or almost exclusively, rural; that it is neither wisdom nor policy for such a country to impose taxation on personal property, where its importance is so insignificant; that it is unwise to tax the capital that imports from other countries—imports which we ourselves consume, and which, if taxed, is indirectly returned to the tax-payer, by the increased price demanded from, and paid by the consumer. Besides, the merchant who imports does not always make a profit on his imports; while the vigilant landlord is generally certain of his rent. The pursuits of trade are those of fluctuation and uncertainty. Look at this question in another point of view, and let me inquire who employ the houses and stores of a city? The landlord can only live in one house, but he needs tenants for his remaining property; and in a city so exclusively commercial as New-Orleans, who compose that tenantry? Merchants, and the agents of commerce. Is it not the gain and interest of the property-holder to encourage the increase of this class of population? And what agency so efficient to do this as building rail-roads? If the building of rail-roads permanently increases the value of houses, by increasing the demand for them, is it the interest or is it the policy of the landlord to oppose a system so manifestly intended for his benefit? But the clear and lucid explanations of my friend, Mr. Benjamin, show that the mode of raising means to build rail-roads by taxation, is the least objectionable of all modes of taxation; and that, practically speaking, it is no taxation at all where the improvements made by such means are feasible and profitable. An agricultural people are at no time, or in any country, less disposed to be liberal subscribers to stock companies; as a class, they regard with timidity and doubt all undertakings that do not seem to possess the certain security of landed possessions; and while our planters would see inducements to borrow money to enlarge and extend their estates, they would never, as individuals, borrow money to become stockholders in a bank or a rail-road. It is in cities, where the spirit of adventure, stimulated by examples of successful enterprise, comes forward to embark in undertakings, and where the aggregations of capital are ready to be advanced when inducements are offered, that undertakings receive the most favor. It is only necessary to recur to my explanation of the position of New-Orleans credit, to ascertain that this advantage, common to other cities, is now an insignificant one with us, and that the recommendation we make in favor of taxation, is suggested by reasons of policy, as well as by reasons of necessity.

Taxation, for the purposes of internal improvement, has been sanctioned by the usages of New-York, Pennsylvania and Ohio. All these states borrowed largely to build canals and rail-roads, and taxed the whole people to pay the interest on their loans. In Ohio, the opposition to the tax was very great; opposition was manifested in every way. The lives of the officers of the state, charged with the collection of the tax, were seriously threatened. But before the canal was completed, the people of the interior of Ohio received little or nothing for the products of their farms, and the price paid for wheat was twenty-five cents per bushel. When the canals were opened, wheat rose in price to eighty cents and one dollar per bushel; their lands four and five hundred per cent.; and any one who would have had the temerity to condemn the canal, would have been almost in as much danger as the officers who collected the tax to pay the interest on the loans that had furnished the means of their construction.

I shall not dwell longer on this point. The question is at once so suggestive, that I do not think any gentleman present needs further examples to overcome his objections, if he have any; and, were I to pursue the question further, I would point you to the examples of many of our sister states and cities of the Southwest, where taxation to build rail-roads has been adopted almost without opposition.

Mr. President: I now pass to another subject of great interest to New-Orleans and as one intimately connected with the progress and completion of rail-roads in the valley of the Mississippi. One of the chief drawbacks to New-Orleans is the absence of an import trade; and why are we without imports? Why is it, that a city exporting eighty or ninety millions of dollars annually, is so insignificant in that important branch of commerce? Because of the remoteness and uncertainty of our market—our being without a speedy, rapid, and cheap communication with the interior country that seeks New-Orleans as a market for its agricultural productions. It is in our power to make New-Orleans a large importing city, by carrying out the objects of this Convention, and facilitating access between New-Orleans and

every portion of the valley of the Mississippi, which is tributary to our trade; and without rail-roads, this communication cannot be established to compete successfully with the active enterprise of our Northern rivals. Under present and past circumstances, this city could not pretend to carry on importing extensively, when imports from those countries we trade with, were such here, were either cut off by distance from the country that would become customers for these imports, by delays or uncertain navigation, or, when these facilities were at command, the goods imported had either become unsaleable or unfashionable, leaving the importer the alternative of waiting for the return of another season, at the expense of interest and multiplied expenses, which, under any circumstances, takes away all chance of profit. But, build the proposed rail-roads, place it within our power to travel to Nashville in twenty hours, Memphis in twenty hours, and all the important points of the Eastern valley of the Ohio and Mississippi in a like quick time, and our own Western borders and Texas in a few hours, then New-Orleans will be a city of imports, the produce of this rich agricultural empire will flow into her lap, not as a mere place of transit, but to be exchanged for the productions of other countries; then will New-Orleans begin the fulfilment of her destiny, and become renowned and famous among the cities of the world.

I propose to illustrate the advantages of an importing trade over one of mere export. We all know that the agencies employed in receiving, selling and shipping fifty thousand bales of cotton, are very small, and yet fifty thousand bales of cotton, at present cost, would produce \$1,500,000. Suppose the proceeds of this cotton was brought back in the manufactures of Birmingham, Manchester, Lyons, or any European city, how many agencies would be required to distribute it through all the channels between the importer and the consumer? Judging from the subdivisions of such employments in Northern cities, the number would be very great; but these people not only want storehouses and shops, but want houses to live in; and with the demand for stores, shops and houses, would spring up a demand for builders, artisans and laborers, and agents of every description; our vacant lots would soon be covered by improvements, our vacant houses tenanted by an active and industrious population, that would become permanent and progressive. These are the elements of a solid prosperity, and what New-Orleans most needs. A mere city of transit commerce can never be a great city. You may talk of receipts of cotton, sugar, and tobacco—they have done all for you they ever will do. You must now rely on something else, and this reliance is mainly dependent on increased local pursuits and increased interior communication, such as New-York and every Northern city has established.

I fear I tax your patience, but our present circumstances demand from every citizen an attention to facts; and your time cannot be better employed than in listening to those I am detailing. It is a constant subject of complaint that New-Orleans has an insufficient banking capital—that money commands a high price. The error on this subject is very prevalent at home and abroad. Boston, which is constantly rung in our ears as an example of wealth and enterprise, divided from her commerce and manufactures, has about eighteen millions of banking capital, whilst New-Orleans has about seventeen millions of fixed capital, or about ten millions of active capital. The cities of New-York and Brooklyn have a banking capital of twenty-eight millions, Philadelphia under ten millions, and Baltimore under seven millions; New-York and Brooklyn have near six times the population of New-Orleans, and less than three times an excess in banking capital. Philadelphia has a population nearly four times greater than New-Orleans, and her banking capital is not so great. Baltimore, that has a population near fifty per cent. greater than New-Orleans, has three millions less banking capital than New-Orleans. Cincinnati has not more than one-eighth, and St. Louis not more than one-twentieth of the banking capital of New-Orleans; and yet these cities have advanced with astonishing progress, and have almost doubled their populations, whilst New-Orleans is comparatively stationary.

The deposits of the banking institutions of New-Orleans bear a proportion to those of other cities, equally favorable with that of their capitals; and I assume that fixed capitals and deposits in any city are an index of its aggregate capital and means. With these facts, I proceed to make another statement, warranted by my knowledge of the facts: that the average price of money in New-Orleans

since 1842, has been 33 per cent. cheaper than the average price in Boston; 25 per cent. cheaper than the average price in New-York, Philadelphia or Baltimore; and 50 per cent. cheaper than in Cincinnati and St. Louis. When I speak of the average price, or the dearness or cheapness of money, I mean the current price demanded and paid on good and undoubted security; and I am particular on these points of comparison, as intending to show that the circulation of capital depends on the manner of its employment, and that small capitals, actively circulated where employments are multiplied and various, achieve a great deal more than large capitals, located in a city with her whole dependence founded on a mere export commerce. The operation of unwise laws affecting capital, will, in all countries, restrain and embarrass its free circulation; and when the laws are not such as to endanger the safe employment of capital, it will certainly disappear.

We have more capital in the Southern states, for our wants, than any portion of the Confederacy. The absence among us of the prosperity so manifest in the Northern and Middle states, does not arise from any want of capital, but proceeds from the utter neglect of the South to her true and substantial interests, and the discouragements that stand in the way of investments. The unfortunate circumstances of the public credit of Mississippi and Arkansas, and the overthrow of confidence, public and private, when public obligations are disregarded, visit on the whole Southwest penalties that are fatal to the spirit of enterprise, and above all, to that confidence that nourishes and protects it. The demoralizing influence of plighted public faith weakens the attachment of the people to the government, and capital and property will never trust its protection to a government without this moral support. Capital will never flow into a state that neglects the fulfilment of her public engagements; but all the savings of capital, derived from industry and economy, in such a state, will leave it—take wings and fly away to places of greater security. At this time, and within the last year, the chief buyers of stocks, for investment in New-York, were Southern people—yes, Mr. President, people from Mississippi and Alabama; and yet, if capital is so scarce and money so dear, as is daily announced, why does it happen that this country is furnishing capital to buy Northern stocks? furnishing capital to enable our active and enterprising rivals to extend their highways and power? furnishing the aid that transfers to them supremacy, and weakens and impoverishes us? If you are true Southerners, and I believe you all are, go to work and change all this by ordaining such laws as will inspire confidence at home and abroad; go to work and imitate your victorious rivals, build roads and create stock at home, give the guarantee of honesty and security, and my word for it, you will not only entice back the capital that is leaving you, but invite it from abroad.

Whilst regarding our pursuits and laws as unfavorable to that circulation of capital known in other sections of the Union, there is another cause that is dealing out its influences. Lately, there has sprung up, in consequence of the slavery agitation, an uneasy feeling. The wicked and insane meddling of the enemies of our institutions, of our peace and tranquillity, and the perpetual discussion of the question, North and South, contributes largely to unsettle confidence, and to work on the fears of the timid. I am not among the number to believe this evil is not to be overcome. The South, united in policy and interest, united by the ties of closer inter-communication, united by an extended and combined system of rail-roads, united by the development of her vast resources, and the building up of a manufacturing interest, will soon be in circumstances of power and prominence that will put at naught all the distractions that have threatened her peace, and endangered the security of the Union.

The building of rail-roads, the erection of manufactories, and the demand for the skill and labor that they everywhere create, will attract immigration to the South, will augment our white population, who will become more permanent and settled in their pursuits; and this tendency to localizing population, will prove an element of increased security to the South, one which will hasten the recovery of her lost power.

Attention to these interests will achieve far more for the South than the discussion of the platforms of political quackery, invented to advance the pretensions of their projectors.

I again repeat that the cry of deficiency in capital is unfounded; we have it in abundance for all our purposes, if it can be concentrated and circulated as it is in

Wall-street. There has been no period in the last five years, notwithstanding its being marked with great revolutions in trade, that money was not obtainable in New-Orleans, on good security—I mean available and convertible security, such as is recognized and current in Amsterdam, London and New-York; I do not mean security with the incumbrance of notarial pledges, tacit mortgages, appraisement laws, fees to lawyers for collecting, and vexatious delays in realizing them. The money-lender is always the most timid of men; he has what you want, and is always willing to supply your wants, provided he is sure of escaping trouble and vexation, and the security you offer is good; but when you ask him to employ attorneys to investigate any titles, and expose himself to any uncertainty, his compliance is at an end. Is it unreasonable to suppose a money-lender would be attracted by the securities and forms of law known in Louisiana; that he would hazard the profit on his loans by the fees paid to the agents of the law, and their punctual recovery by the delays of an appraisement law that extends the payment twelve months, when the property does not bring two-thirds of its cash value? It is the doubt and uncertainty produced by such a condition of laws, that curtail the circulation of capital, and make it dear to the agricultural classes of the country.

We possess the most favored country under the sun; we have immense tracts of uncultivated land, teeming with fruitfulness; and if we had wise laws, our region would become great and prosperous. Then a magnificent system of internal improvement will spring up, and New-Orleans will not only be the greatest exporting, but become one of the largest importing and commercial cities in the world. She will then be to the Southwest what New-York is to her dependencies: the mart of a great and powerful empire.

Digressing from this branch of the subject, I pass to another subject of interest to the Southwest. After the war of 1812, the manufactories of the North were found in such a condition as to need the protection of government. That protection has been kept up ever since, until it has built up at the North a vast manufacturing power and population. The generosity of the South has fostered an interest which has now become an overwhelming one. In the meantime, we have done nothing towards fostering industry in our midst. The example of the North has been lost upon us. We have neglected the means by which she has grown great. I agree in the remark of Mr. Pike, of Arkansas, that if we wish to be equals in the Union, we must be equal in power, strength and resources. There is nothing gained by talking of the progress and enterprise of the North. Let us follow the steps by which she has reached her present greatness. When we embark in like enterprises, we shall show a like degree of prosperity and power. When we embark in manufacturing—when we increase the employments of the white man, a large and industrial population will flow thither. The Southwest will be peopled by an efficient and substantial population, which will develop its great resources, and add to our power and strength in the Union, a population identified with us in interest and feeling.

There is an evil under which our city and several of the Southern states suffer, the removal of which is essential to our prosperity, and which will be one of the greatest blessings of rail-roads. I allude to the want of location—of permanency in our population. The annual flight and dispersion of our citizens is a great drain upon the prosperity of New-Orleans. I scarcely feel I have a local habitation. So it is with a large majority of our people. Local attachments are necessary to the permanent prosperity of every community. When we have a ready access by rail-road to a country adjacent and tributary to our city, where we may escape for a time the heats of summer, and be within convenient distance of our place of business, our population will cease to fly every year to Europe and the North. These great roads will enable us to draw closer the bonds of friendship and intimacy with our brethren in other states. They will learn, by intimate association, to regard us with kindlier feelings; we shall bring back pleasing recollections, enlightened intelligence, enlarged views,—and a stronger love of this great and glorious Union. We shall then become one people,—one in feeling, in interest, in sympathy, and in devotion to our noble and beneficent institutions.

In a political point of view, these roads are scarcely less important and necessary to the South. West of us lies a vast and noble country, capable of sustaining millions. This country is not surpassed by any in the Union in fertility. All

that is necessary is to give ready access to it. Penetrate this region with rail-roads, and in a few years those fertile plains will be filled by a numerous, busy and energetic population. There will arise new states here, and our representation in Congress will soon equal that of the North. Aside, then, from the mere profit, there are high considerations of state pride, patriotism and feeling, to be gratified. With such motives and objects, shall we fail to do our duty? Shall we grow cold and indifferent to our true interests—to the glory, honor and prosperity of our own Southwest?

Not the least of the good effects of these rail-roads, deserving our serious consideration, is their promotion of the moral and social condition of man. They bring people closer together, wear off, by continual contact, the prejudices and unkindly feelings which sometimes arise between men; they promote knowledge and science, by interchange of ideas; and lastly, they promote the advancement of republicanism and free institutions, by showing to the world the development, the happiness and wealth that can be attained under such a form of government, and by ennobling and strengthening our attachment to our country. Here is a civilizing and conquering power, greater than that of all the cannon that ever belched forth destruction on the battle field. The rail-road is the greatest of all missions, save that alone of our Saviour.

Such are some of the benefits of the measure which we have assembled to promote. I trust in God that our labor will not have been in vain. I cannot permit my mind to doubt that we shall all return to our homes with the determination to go to work, and rest not until the glorious consummation is realized. When we change our bad laws—when we draw closer the bonds with our brethren in other sections of our Union, and grow more friendly and sociable—when we covenant together to build rail-roads throughout our rich territory, promoting trade, commerce, population and production, then will the Southwest enter upon a career which will shame the greatness of the richest empires of the world, and this become the Empire City of the Southwest, the centre of prosperity, of wealth, of enlightenment, of the arts and sciences, and of all that makes a people great and free!

MEMPHIS AND LOUISVILLE RAIL-ROAD.

SPEECH OF J. T. TREZEVANT, OF TENNESSEE.

Mr. President and Gentlemen of the Convention:

When I recollect that the Convention has often been addressed by gentlemen much more able to instruct and interest than myself, and when, on looking around me, I can recognize scarcely a dozen familiar faces, I may well feel some diffidence in rising at all. But deeming the introduction of the report of the committee on routes so appropriate an occasion for offering the few remarks which I shall make, and viewing one of the routes reported upon by the committee of vast importance, not only to the city which I, in part, represent here, but also to the city of New-Orleans, I will venture to claim the indulgent attention of the Convention while I endeavor to present the peculiar claims this road has upon the citizens of New-Orleans, as well as upon the citizens of Tennessee.

New-Orleans, Mr. President, is engaged in a grand game of chess. Her opponents are the important cities on the Atlantic seaboard, from Boston to Charleston—New-York being her principal antagonist. The pieces with which the game is played, are the great *natural* avenues of commerce, and the *artificial* ones which man is making. The prize is one of such magnitude, that it will bring to the victor the seat of empire. To the loser will surely come commercial dependence. A few, a very few years will decide the contest; and when we know, that in it is involved the commercial independence, not only of New-Orleans, but of the Southwest, and when we also know that, with this commercial independence, is intimately blended the political independence of the South, we may well regard the game with deep interest, and venture to suggest any move by which this sort of vassalage to the North may be averted. New-Orleans

has no children to play with. Her adversaries are not easily blinded by the moves on the board. On the contrary, they are vigilant, energetic and skilful. New-Orleans has great natural advantages—advantages which, at first sight, appear sufficient to secure the victory, but which have made her self-reliant and almost indifferent to the necessity of aiding those natural by artificial advantages. So secure has she felt, as the mistress of the commerce of this vast valley, that, until lately, she has wanted energy and activity. This Convention, Mr. President, have listened to the glowing accounts of her greatness, given by some of her most distinguished sons; they have been told of her impregnable position—of her vast resources—of her independence of aid from any quarter—of her ability to accomplish a brighter destiny yet. But, sir, eloquence cannot set aside the force of facts and figures. These are the stern arbiters to which, in a matter of this kind, we *must* pay deference. Speaking facts, as I do, to practical men, I may say to the citizens of New-Orleans, "You have looked on that picture; now look on this." And I beg to say, sir, that if my picture is not as flattering as the wishes of her people might fancy, I will yet say it is sketched by no unfriendly hand; for the welfare of New-Orleans and of this valley are one.

As the basis of the few remarks I shall make, I submit these three propositions as conclusive, to wit:

1. The commerce of the Ohio valley region has contributed more towards enriching New-Orleans, and is now worth more to her, than the commerce of any other portion of the Union.

2. As valuable as this commerce is, she is more likely to lose it than any other trade she has, by the energetic movements of New-York and other Atlantic cities.

3. To retain this valuable trade, which is about leaving New-Orleans for the Atlantic seaboard, that city is deeply interested in the construction of a rail-road from Memphis to Louisville.

Until you glance at the map of the Union, Mr. President, you will not have an accurate idea of the extent of what may appropriately be called "the Ohio valley region," which is *naturally* tributary to New-Orleans. It comprises an extent of country which, lying on each side of the Ohio River, and watered and fertilized by its many tributaries, contains not much less than 200,000 square miles, and an enterprising, industrious, wealthy and intelligent population, numbering some five or six millions. It is that portion of the great Northwest which has heretofore thrown down upon her wharves the largest part of her wealth. You may have some idea of the vast producing-capacity of that region when I state, that during the year 1850, nearly 3,000 landings were made at Memphis by steamers passing to and from New-Orleans; and of that number, nearly one-half were out of the Ohio River and its tributaries. I might spend an hour, sir, in endeavoring to bring facts to sustain my first proposition; but this one is worth them all. It is powerfully suggestive, and eminently deserves consideration. Nor is this trade like that which comes from the more southern region at present. From the states lying south of the Ohio valley, New-Orleans receives cotton and sugar almost exclusively; but from that valley, the products are greatly diversified, giving employment, in their purchase and sale, to a much larger number of citizens, and thus serving to add more to population.

In illustrating my second proposition, Mr. President, I need but recur to the causes which induced this Convention. Had New-Orleans felt as commercially secure as she did ten years since; had she not begun to realize the fact, that some of her former dependencies are looking out for other commercial connections; had she not felt that her commerce and her greatness are gradually declining, though the country which has built her up has been rapidly increasing in population, productions and wealth, she never would have called this Convention. But she finds powerful rivals in the field; invaders, if you will, but invaders possessed of means and of energies which, if contemned, will soon become irresistible.

Look, sir, at that map, on your right. Is it not illustrative of both my first and second propositions, when it is seen that every important rail-road from the Atlantic points towards that Ohio valley? The rivals of New-Orleans know that *there* is the wealth which built her up; they know that this wealth is but just in its infancy; they know that the difficulties of navigation which the commerce

of that region must encounter in getting to New-Orleans, begin at Louisville and end at Memphis. Louisville being the commercial heart of that valley, any rail-road from the Atlantic, terminating within a circle one hundred miles from that city, will command the vast traffic of that country, unless a counter move is made by New-Orleans. So serious are the obstructions to this commerce, and so long do they often continue, that, in point of time, Louisville is often further from New-Orleans than from Liverpool. With these difficulties, how can the trade between New-Orleans and the Ohio valley continue, when the capital and the enterprise of New-York are offering to that people artificial channels of communication that are certain, speedy and regular?

I now come to my third proposition, Mr. President; and as it is self-suggestive, it requires but few words from me. A rail-road from Memphis to Louisville will throw all the commerce of that Ohio valley upon the Mississippi at Memphis. With such a connection, New-Orleans will be as near the heart of that valley as any city on the Atlantic, save Charleston; and with the means of throwing that commerce upon the Mississippi at Memphis, competition in transportation is out of the question. And, in addition to the advantages which this cheap medium of transportation on the Mississippi would give her over other rivals, she has all the advantage of climate and country in which to build the road necessary to give her this connection.

Now, sir, let me ask, especially of the citizens of New-Orleans, if any other rail-road which they are about constructing, can be finished soon enough to save to them this valuable trade? Three years more will see the leading Atlantic cities in full connection, by rail-road, with that valley, bringing it within fifty hours of New-York, and forty hours of Charleston. Can New-Orleans reach this valley by her great Nashville road within that time? Can she do so even in ten years? Let her note the time it took to build any leading rail-road in the country, and she has the answer. It is little short of four hundred miles from Cincinnati to St. Louis; and yet a late contract for a rail-road between these cities, stipulates for five years for its completion, though running through a populous, wealthy, and a rail-road country. New-Orleans is upwards of seven hundred miles from Louisville. Let her citizens make a reasonable computation of the time it will take to build that great connection, and they will find it must be finished *too late* to save them. But *one* move can be made in time to save that vast trade; and that is, a road from Louisville to Memphis. That built, and the wealth of that trade retained, it will make certain, and expedite the construction of her other grand enterprises.

Viewing this work so pressingly important to this city, Mr. President, I can but regard it as the first blow she should strike in order to recall that tide of wealth which is about leaving her.

I should, perhaps, have stopped here, Mr. President, had I not heard what I deemed some strange remarks from two of the most prominent and enterprising citizens of this city. Mr. Benjamin, in his eloquent manner, told us that New-Orleans needed no aid from abroad; that some of her friends were needlessly alarmed at her situation; and that she was impregnable. Let me ask, who commands the Pacific trade via Panama? Is it New-Orleans? No, sir. It is New-York—a city as far again from Panama as is New-Orleans? Is she impregnable, then? Should not this trade all pass through New-Orleans? Surely: and yet it is controlled by merchants a thousand miles further from the Isthmus than she is. What guarantee have her citizens that, when Mr. Benjamin shall have built his Tehuantepec road, New-York will not control that as she now does the Panama transit?

But, sir, the prices current for the past year, which has this morning been laid upon your table, contains facts of grave importance, and well calculated to create some suspicions about the impregnability of New-Orleans. It shows the condition of her export trade in '48 and '49 as compared with '50 and '51, as follows:

In '48-'49 the exports were—		In '50-'51 the exports were—	
Barrels Flour.....	778,000	Barrels Flour.....	533,000
" Pork.....	466,000	" Pork.....	192,000
Hhds. Bacon.....	672,000	Hhds. Bacon.....	462,000
Kegs Lard.....	1,246,000	Kegs Lard.....	739,000
Barrels Beef.....	60,000	Barrels Beef.....	43,000
Corn.....	1,465,000	Corn.....	535,000

A diminution which is only too suggestive of the decline of trade. We find the same facts with regard to arrivals. In '48 and '49, 2,931 vessels arrived in this port; and in '50 and '51, only 2,144; and during the former year, 3,022 steamboats landed at the very quays; and during the latter, 2,913. These are stern facts which cannot be blinked for a moment, and should be remembered by every one interested in the questions occupying our attention.

And it must be remembered that this decline in trade is not because the country furnishing these articles has produced less; for they have increased in amount; but it is because the products have found other markets; and *what New-Orleans has lost, New-York has gained.*

We have been told too, sir, that New-Orleans does not need capital; that she has more, for her population, than any city in the Union. I am not here to controvert that opinion; for it comes from too high a source. But I will say, that, if this be so, she has made bad, very bad use of it; and it but proves another thing—that *New-Orleans needs men of enterprise more than any thing else.* Position is not every thing; for Norfolk, with the best harbor on the Atlantic, has suffered Baltimore, comparatively an inland city, to take away the commerce that legitimately belongs to her. Enterprise often outbids nature. New-Orleans needs a few more such men as Robb and Benjamin—men of *will*, with energies rightly directed. The personal history of each of these gentlemen forcibly illustrates what energy and enterprise can accomplish, even *without* position. Then what may they not do *with* it?

The citizens of this city, Mr. President, forget the old adage, that "God made the country, but man makes the town;" and seem to fancy that Providence had the building up of New-Orleans, and will take good care of it. They may awake from this dream too late. *She* is in danger—not the country; and the surest and speediest way of averting commercial prostration, is by enlisting at once and liberally in constructing the road from Memphis to Louisville.

That move alone can check-mate the Atlantic cities. It will turn again upon her that tide of wealth, which, until the era of rail-roads, floated to her wharves on the bosom of the Mississippi. It will bring back to her that prosperity which will make her truly the emporium of the South, as New-York is of the North. With this connection she may defy all rivalry. Without it, her destiny is that which is so distinctly foreshadowed in the decline of the past few years.

IMPORTANCE OF AN INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN THE SOUTH.

SPEECH BY J. D. B. DE BOW.

[In consequence of the lateness of the hour, the mere heads of this speech were touched upon by the author; but he has been induced since to write out the whole fully from his notes, and incorporate it among the proceedings of the Convention. The speech is substantially the same as that afterwards delivered by him, by request of the Convention, in Jackson, Mississippi. It is to be regretted that the suggestion of "Annual Conventions" was not carried out, the resolution having been introduced too late to be acted upon. We recommend the subject to the attention of the meeting of cotton planters, in May next, at Montgomery.]

Mr. President, and Gentlemen of the Convention:—

The committee who were entrusted by you with the duty of inviting the assembling of this Convention, has instructed me, one of its members, to recapitulate a few of the advantages which were proposed from its action; and also to suggest some practicable means, if such exist, of making that action felt widely, generally, and beneficially, throughout our limits, in the future.

The meeting of a body like this, constituted from so many sources, and embracing so much of the talent of so many great states, at a point like New-Orleans, which has been considered hitherto as dead to every other consideration than that of levying tribute upon nature, in sleepy apathy, is an event of no ordinary moment

in the history of the Southwest. It evidences a revolution in progress among us, which even two years ago could not have been predicted without hazarding the character of sanity, and throws, amid all the discouragements by which we are surrounded, a broad gleam of sunshine upon our future hopes and prospects.

Yet, gentlemen, let us not argue too strongly, from what, after all, may be but the most deceptive appearances. Our disappointments have been so many and so bitter in the past, and we have had the chalice broken so often at our lips, that it is impossible, even with all the sanguine characteristics of our nature, not to be agitated with doubts and fears. Our addresses, our reports, our discussions, may be destined to be as evanescent as the breath which utters them, or as valueless as the paper upon which they are inscribed; and the heritage of our fathers be ours still, in all the future, to "resolve and re-resolve," yet "die the same."

I am wrong, perhaps, to doubt for the West—the giant West, which has sprung from swaddling clothes into colossal habiliments; which has promised nothing, yet fulfilled everything—but yesterday a wilderness, to-day, nourishing and supporting as many thronging, active, enterprising millions, nearly, as did Great Britain, when she resisted, during the Napoleon wars, the shock of all the armies in Europe. But what shall we say of the South—the old South, which fought the battles of the Revolution—which gave the statesmen, the generals, and the wealth of those early times—which concentrated then the agriculture, the commerce, and, even to some extent, the manufactures of the continent, but which has lost, or is losing everything else, save that of agriculture; and even this last resource growing less and less remunerative, threatens in the event to complete her beggary? How much has the South promised, and how little has she fulfilled? Her manufactures originated coeval with those of the North, and when there were not fifteen cotton factories in the whole Union, she had constructed an immense one in her limits. Nearly half a century has passed since then, and yet the South, though growing nearly all the cotton required for the world's consumption, leaves 29-30ths of the profitable business of its conversion into fabrics to other and to foreign hands!

And how has it been with our commerce? When New-England struggled with the whale in northern seas, the rich argosies of the South, laden with abundant products, were seeking the markets of all Europe. Seventy years before the revolution, Maryland, Virginia, and Carolina, as the chronicles tell us, furnished the entire exports of the colonies, and imported more largely than New-England or New-York. Fifty years before the Revolution things had but slightly changed, and the exports of New-York, New-England, and Pennsylvania together, were less in amount than those of the single colony of Carolina. Even in 1775, the exports of New-York were £187,000; Carolina, £579,000; Virginia, £758,000. Imports of New-York, £1,200; Virginia and Maryland, £2,000; Carolina, £6,000. Georgia, a new plantation, equalled New-York! As late as the close of the century, Charleston continued to contest the palm with New-York. But how has that struggle ended? Who dares grapple with that colossal city, without the certainty of being ground into powder? What has become of southern commercial competition, now that New-York and New-England conduct nine-tenths of the imports of the country and one-half of its exports, though nearly *all* of these exports, with which, of course, the imports are purchased, are of southern material, and more than an equal proportion of the imports are for southern consumption? * Thus it is calculated that the South lends from year to year a trading capital to the North amounting to nearly ONE HUNDRED MILLIONS of dollars, and upon which the North receives the entire profits! Can it be wondered at, then, that the North grows rich, and powerful, and great, whilst we, at best, are stationary?

The first steamship that ever crossed the broad Atlantic sailed from the southern port of Savannah; and in 1839, when the practicability of this description of navigation was fully demonstrated, Virginia was talking of negotiations with the French, in order that Norfolk might be made the terminus of a line contemplated from Havre—yet, at this day, throughout the length and breadth of the South, what steamer seeks a European port—though the North rapidly approximates to a daily line!

The South had within her limits once the largest rail-road in the world, and projected, and actually commenced constructing the first great rail-road across the

* The calculation is, of course, intended as an average one.

mountains to the teeming West; yet how has she pursued this movement? Whilst the North has opened innumerable communications with the valley, and is draining it of the most valuable products, in return inundating it with the products of her workshops and her commerce, enriching herself beyond the dreams of her own enthusiasts, what single communication has the South to that valley, except what nature has given her—the great river and its tributaries—a communication which must soon be superseded by the works of art. After twenty years' experience, notwithstanding our early promise, and with equal population with the North, we have but one-third the actual miles of rail-road constructed, though our territory is five times as great. In other words, the North has twelve times, or including Texas, eighteen times the extent of rail-roads to the square mile that the South has; and each mile of northern territory has expended thirty times as much upon such roads as each mile of southern territory.*

These are stubborn facts, gentlemen, whatever reason may be assigned for them; and though one or two of the southern states may constitute, in some sort, an exception, as for instance, Georgia, which has lately made rapid strides beyond her neighbors, no one can object to us that we have stated the proposition with general fairness and truth.

We have been content to be solely agriculturists, and to exhaust the fertility of an abundant soil, believing that all other pursuits being derivative only, were of less importance, and even dignity. The fashion of the South has been to consider the production of cotton, and sugar, and rice, the only rational pursuits of gentlemen, except the professions, and like the haughty Greek and Roman, to class the trading and the manufacturing spirit as essentially *servile*. I admit the day is passing away, but it is passing too late to save us, unless we display a degree of vigor and energy far beyond what past experience would bid us hope. The planters of the South perceive the position of peril in which we are placed. We have a slave force which has increased in numbers 711,085 in ten years, and which must be shut up forever within its present limits, though the productions of these slaves have not increased in value in the same proportion, or in anything like it.

Is this not a significant fact, and does it not encourage dark forebodings of the future? Yet the result is but natural, and clearly deducible from the rules of legitimate political economy—mere production from the soil soon finds its limit and limits population. Gentlemen of the West, you too already begin to feel this truth; for have you procured a market for your breadstuffs and provisions at all comparable to your capacity to supply them? Twenty years ago your exports were one-half what they are at present, though your population has increased *four-fold* since then; and when, in 1846, under the pressure of foreign famine, you exported three times your exports of the present year—you demonstrated the inexhaustible character of your granaries, and that want of demand which begins already to press so severely upon you.

The planters of the South have lately met in convention, at Macon, Ga., and propose another convention in May next, in Montgomery. Some of these delegates were sent to this convention. But what is it they propose? It is not to create a demand for their labor in its present exercise, or to create new results for that labor, but letting things remain as they are, to affix a certain arbitrary standard of price, and by a combination among themselves, preserve that standard, in defiance of all extraneous influences. It is barely possible that something may come off this scheme that shall tell upon their future prosperity. It is possible that there are other plans which may be adopted, more promising of success, or at least that something is practicable to relieve the planters, as things now stand; yet we must be allowed to entertain some doubt in the matter.

Gentlemen of the South and the West, the true mischief under which we labor stands upon the surface, and requires no probing to discover. Four times the number of grain growers find but a two-fold increased market for their products, and 750,000 additional slaves are becoming consumers in a larger degree than they are producers. Here is labor expended without profit—lost to all the purposes of improvement, and of advanced prosperity and wealth. Where, then,

* See address to the people of the South and West, in De Bow's Review for August, 1851.

shall we look for a practical remedy? *We must diversify, or find new employment for labor.* And how is this to be done? I answer,

1. *In the construction of a system of rail-roads through our limits.*—It is a merit of rail-roads, that they have the highest influence in diversifying the industry of a people. They open a country and extend population, thus creating the very trade that supports them. They raise the price of lands by bringing them into more immediate connection with market, and thus pay back the investment, without reference to their actual earnings, which, in addition, are usually as large as those of other descriptions of investment. They build up cities as all experience shows, and by giving certainty, speed and economy to communication, make manufactories practicable where otherwise we in vain would look for them. The example of Georgia is in point, where a thousand villages are springing up and manufactories extending, thus acquiring for her the reputation of the Massachusetts of the South. Every rail-road in New-England develops in its course manufacturing villages, and few of these villages may be found there without such communication with the capital. The South has been content with the cumbersome machinery of her wagons, and with the frequently interrupted and dangerous navigation of her rivers; and this has been the case with the West. Thus nine-tenths of our country has been literally shut out from market for more than half the year, and, during the remainder, pays the penalties of delays and losses which are never incident to rail-roads, and which counterbalances the advantages of cheaper freights, though, as to actual cheapness, it may be affirmed that rail-road communication among us could be made as cheap, all things considered, as that conducted at present on the rivers. We know that the immense steamboat interest of the West is now actually paying no dividend, being a most hazardous business, and that it is so much capital almost unproductively employed, and thus lost to the country. Yet, what are our rivers and our steamboats? Who trusts them without saying his prayers as he enters, or having strong disposition to make his will?—floating *Etnas*, which belch forth their bolts of death in the moments of our greatest fancied security and repose. Never could a convention have met at a more propitious moment than this. We have just passed through a season of the most frightful losses of life on our rivers, and have witnessed a prevalence of low waters, calculated to break up the commerce of any people upon earth. Look at the Ohio, the Cumberland, the Red, and the Arkansas rivers; until the other day, the memory of man scarcely runs back to the time when we could navigate them securely with our larger steamers; and hardly have the showers descended, and their waters swelled again, before several of them are locked up in icy repose. Can a people, relying upon such communications, expect prosperity? Can industry thrive, or must they not remain in a semi-primitive state, and incapable of that combination of effort which alone secures natural prosperity? Place the North in a similar position for twelve months, and her towering manufacturing palaces crumble into ruins, and her ships rot upon their stocks. She found even her great canal to the West, her Mississippi river, would not suffice, but built two great rail-roads, almost the greatest in the world, parallel to it. Our planters frequently lose more by their incapacity to reach market during high prices, than would build a rail-road to their doors. It is believed that sufficient was lost last year, in that manner, to have half built the road from New-Orleans, through Mississippi, to the Tennessee line. What embarrassments, too, have our merchants experienced during the same time, from the impossibility of receiving the consignments, upon which heavy advances have been made? Is not this disastrous to trade, and have we not felt it so?

No people on earth have the means of building rail-roads so economically, so speedily, and with such certainty of success, as we of the South and West. As compared with the North, what we have already built has cost, on the average, not half so much. Our country is level—we have no right of way to purchase. We have abundance of timber on the spot, and will only pay the expense of working it; and throughout the South, have an available cheap negro labor, which, if diverted from agriculture into this field would diminish nothing of the money value of our crops, and thus make the rail-roads a clear gain to the wealth of the country.

Wherever negro labor has been applied, it has been with great success. Of the 700,000 negroes, whose labor has added nothing to the wealth we had ten

years ago, could 100,000 be diverted to the construction of rail-roads, the South might open several thousand miles of rail-road every year, and would have the same means of ironing them that she has now from her other resources. Let no one object that our population is too scattered; this will condense it, and invite emigration, which now takes altogether a northern direction, because, here nothing is held out to it. Besides, denseness of population has not been the secret of success to the North. New-England, though no denser than Ohio, has three times the extent of rail-road; and the small state of Maine, though less dense in proportion to territory than Kentucky or Tennessee, has actually constructed more miles of rail-road than both of those great states together. Even at the South, Georgia, with a million of inhabitants, and the usual density, has twice or three times the extent of rail-road in her limits than all the Southwest together; and South Carolina has more than Louisiana, Texas, Mississippi, Alabama and Arkansas, though her population is not one-fourth so great. It is common to say that the people of the North have greater propensities to travel, and thus more readily support their rail-roads than we would. Now this is not true, as we know that no people are more sociable and fond of locomotion than the southern people, even with all the difficulties which environ them. And were it true, we know that the disposition to travel in the North did not create the rail-roads, but was created by it, being proved by the fact that most of their great roads carry from five to ten times the number of passengers which were argued for them on the basis of their previous travel, and several times as much freight.

Another advantage enjoyed by the South and the West is, that there is an immense public domain belonging to the government, and will soon belong to the states, which can be procured for the mere asking, and which will go a great way towards building our rail-roads. The grant to the Mobile road, it is thought, will iron the whole route. Texas and Louisiana, and Mississippi and Alabama, are peculiarly favored in this manner.

There has been a principle adopted in Tennessee which I hope to see adopted in all the southern states, and which this convention should recommend, viz., that the states endorse the bonds of all companies for the purchase of iron after they have laid the track, etc., and take its mortgage upon the work to secure it in the event the companies fail to keep down the interest on their bonds, or cancel them at maturity. This is a plain duty of the states; and in addition to the power vested in the counties and parishes to tax themselves, would secure for us in ten years results which not even a dreamer could anticipate. A sound division would be for the state to take 1-3 interest, (Virginia takes 3-5,) individuals and corporations of cities 1-3, and let the rest be obtained by taxation. Thus, all interests would be called on to contribute to the construction of our great proposed lines.

Whence this disposition to throw the valley of the Mississippi into the lap of the North, thus rolling, as it were, commerce up stream, and reversing the natural state of things? The rail-roads and the canals point in that direction, and every thing is absorbed in the rapacious exactions of New-York and Boston. Is there not a greater reciprocity between the interests of the South and the West than between those of the West and the North? Is there not a demand here for western produce, and one that will grow as we advance together? Have we not ports and harbors at least equal to the North? Are not the Northwest and the West as much interested in keeping up the speediest and the best outlet to the Gulf of Mexico, as they are to the Atlantic seaboard? And are not rail-roads superseding every other means of outlet? We scarcely yet appreciate the importance of the Gulf of Mexico, this great *Southern sea*, which should as much be guarded by the South as the British channel is by the English. Look at its fertile and abundant islands, capable of supplying the tropical products of the world, if in hands adequate to their development; and who can doubt that, before the century has passed away, these islands will be over-run, peaceably or even forcibly, by a people who, in fifty years, have planted ten millions of freemen in a wilderness! Great God, can we even conceive what will be the future importance of these islands! But then, look further. The Gulf of Mexico sweeps into the Carribbean Sea, and unlocks for us the whole of South America, a region which, with Anglo-Saxon amalgamation, may, in the progress of history, be as important as the present importance of our own country. In its great bosom blend the waters of the Mississippi and the Amazon rivers which dwarf all others

in the world. There is a wilderness of treasures in this valley of the Amazon. "Of more than thrice the size of the valley of the Mississippi," says Lieut. Maury, "the valley of the Amazon is entirely inter-tropical. An everlasting summer reigns there. Up to the very base of the Andes the river is navigable for vessels of the largest class. All the climates of India are there. Indeed, we may say, from the mouth to the sources of the Amazon, piled up one above the other, and spread out Andean-like over steppe after steppe in beautiful unbroken succession, are all the climates and all the soils with the capacities of production that are to be found between the regions of perpetual summer and everlasting snows." The Gulf of Mexico opens to us the Pacific and the Indies, through whichever of isthmean routes may be selected, though that of Tehuantepec is most clearly that for the Southern and Western states. Even should a route across the continent be adopted, that route must cross the Mississippi at a Southern point, if Texas be true to herself, and thus the importance of converging Western roads in this direction.

II. Having constructed a system of rail-roads, netting every section of our territory, the South and West will naturally resort to manufactures, which is our second great remedy for the evils which the present shows, and the future fore-shadows. Hamilton Smith, of Kentucky, has demonstrated that where the coal and the iron, and the provisions are, there will be the seat of manufacturing empire; and by a calculation as close as it is perfect, has demonstrated for the Ohio Valley the prospective Manchesters and Lowells of the Union. We think this the truth, but not the whole truth. The South has only to make a systematic and combined movement to break down Northern supremacy in this particular. What practical difficulty is there in their way of her supplying the whole demand, of America at least, for coarse cottons and yarns. The material may be used upon the spot where it is grown, thus saving all the expense of shipment and insurance, and interest and commissions, equivalent to two or three cents a pound, or to a protective tariff enjoyed by the South over the North of from 25 to 33 per cent. Our experiments, when fairly tested, have been successful; and it is worthy of remark, the embarrassments of Northern mills during the last year were not in the same degree felt by those of the South, whilst Southern cotton goods already take the palm, even in Northern markets. Our surplus negro labor has here a wide field open, and every one familiar with the merely mechanical and unintelligent operation of tending the machinery of a cotton-mill, will admit that negro labor, properly organized and directed, can be as effective as the ignorant and miserable operatives of Great Britain. Where it has been tried, and the experiments have been numerous enough, it has proved successful. If twenty planters, working twenty hands each, were to set aside on the average five of the hands for purposes of manufacture, there would be one hundred hands, in addition to the younger ones now almost unproductive. The machinery for these hundred hands, and the rude buildings, would not exceed \$40,000, or \$2,000 each, and thus, without materially diminishing their production of cotton, it could be thrown into a shape which would double its value. Are such combinations among the planters practicable? If they are not, they are at least practicable to our people. But, says one, we have not the capital to spare. I admit, we have not at present, because it is diverted into different channels; but if we will withdraw it, we shall find there is quite enough among us. Or even if we had not the capital, it will be easy to invite it from all sections of the Union, and the world, if we can demonstrate, as we can, a higher degree of profit for it here. But we must have laws to favor such organizations, and a sound and liberal system of financial credit and banking. How much of the mighty capital of the North is foreign, accumulated by debt, or invited by the hope of profit? The South can have as much, if she will but make the effort.

But, gentlemen, we should soon have capital enough and to spare, if we could add to our present earnings those that we sit patiently by and see England and the North realize by the conversion of our products into fabrics, and even those for our own use. There would be added \$40,000 to \$80,000 annually to the capital of the South, which would soon give us a degree of power and wealth enjoyed by no other people.

III. The next point, gentlemen, to which the attention of the South should be called in the diversification of its industry, is the *extension of its foreign com-*

merce. Can any one assign a sufficient reason for the fact, that the whole business of exchanging the products of the South for those which are required from other countries for our consumption, is left to other hands? Northern writers assure us that they make from forty to fifty millions annually out of this business which we complacently leave to them. You may say that the North is more maritime—this is true, but not necessarily, as we infer from the fact that the southern foreign commerce in the early periods of our history was relatively much larger than now; and in the nations of the old world, the most maritime and commercial were always those of the South. It is only lately that the trident of the seas is swayed by northern hands—a sufficient proof that, in the nature of things, there is no necessity for it. It has been the result of artificial causes.

* * * * *

A committee of the Boston Council, in accounting for the extraordinary progress of that city, fix it in the extensive construction of rail-roads, and the establishment of semi-monthly steamers to Europe. The business of these steamers, it was at first thought, would be simply the mail and passengers. Yet the freights, instead of paying government duties as they did at first, of \$29, have reached as high as \$217,000 on a single trip. Before the establishment of these steamers, Lieut. Maury tells us, there was not in a whole year a single vessel clearing from Boston for Liverpool, so completely had New-York monopolized the business. New-York led the way in the establishment of European packets; though it was universally argued that they would not succeed. At first, three small vessels of 300 tons each were put on. They sailed on regular days, freight or no freight. They took at the lowest rates rather than go in ballast. Public interest attached to them, and they increased in numbers—vessel after vessel, and line after line being added, until these regular vessels were up at last for every port in the world. Boston, nearly undone by the enterprise of New-York, turned into a new channel, and fostered a line of foreign *steamships*. Upon this the Gothamites were not content to look long in idleness. They got the government committed in their aid, and then launched out into the business of steamships—performing, in the brief period of two or three years, most wonderful results in this particular. To England, to France, to South America, the Pacific, the West Indies, the Gulf—to southern ports everywhere—these steam lines are in active and daily operation.

Thus, gentlemen, you see how the extensive commerce of the North has been built up. You may build rail-roads, erect factories, hold conventions, but you cannot redeem the commercial apathy of the South unless you are content to adopt the same expedients. Where have we, throughout the length and breadth of the South, packet-ships sailing for Europe, on a regular day, freight or no freight? We have none. The result is, that business which cannot wait for time or trade, goes naturally where there are such ships. What single steam-ship have we from a southern port for Europe? Thus our correspondence, and our passengers, and our valuable return freights, must take the circuitous passage to the North. One of our southern cities has determined to remove this stigma, and have, we believe, with state aid, actually taken the stock for two steamers for Europe. Will the South favor this movement, or will these steamers, after a brief career, be bought up by the North, and placed on the California line? They will assuredly be, if southern men continue to find nothing good in Nazareth, and go seeking after the flesh-pots of a northern Egypt. In New-Orleans a year ago several enterprising gentlemen discussed the subject of a line of foreign steamers from this port. They got up a circular. They proposed a company of four hundred and fifty persons, subscribing \$1,000 each, and two steamers of 1,500 or 1,600 tons burthen, capable of carrying two hundred passengers, and three thousand two hundred bales of cotton. The British Consul, Mr. Mure, a practical merchant, demonstrated that these ships would pay 42 per cent. per annum. Yet who has come forward to take a single share? and has not the whole projection already taken its place with the thousand others which have dragged the South down to her present level?

Gentlemen, will these things continue? You are aware that the people of Virginia have lately held a commercial convention, and determined, so far as they are concerned, they shall not continue. They even appointed delegates to this convention. More lately the planters of the South convened at Macon, Ga.

The continent of Europe consumes 600,000 bales of southern cotton, the most of which is obtained through Liverpool, thus exacting a tribute both from the producer and consumer. Any measures, says Col. Gadsden, which would tend to the distribution by direct intercourse with many markets what they may consume of cottons in exchange for the commodities they are prepared to offer in return, would, to some extent, remedy the revulsions which concentration at a single point produce; and, as supply and demand are made to harmonize, would in time lead to a more healthy and regular trade, and more steady and remunerating prices. The house of Hartsen & Co., of Amsterdam, proposed, through Mr. Taylor, to establish regular packet ships from Southern ports, whether freight shall offer or not, if the planters of the South will make consignments to them, for which they guarantee Liverpool quotations at the time of sale. Is not this a reasonable proposition? Yet will not men consider it, as they do everything else that makes for the advancement of the South, chimerical, and give it the cold shoulder?

Thirteen years ago the South was greatly aroused on this subject of her foreign trade, and several large conventions, embracing the talent and enterprise of half a dozen states, were held in Macon, in Augusta, in Charleston; but from this spasmodic effort we declined again into that torpor which has been exhausting our life blood. Some of the most gifted and practical sons of the South reported in its committees, and demonstrated as perfectly as could be done, the evil and the remedy.*

Never were more able and convincing papers put to the world—but we have not heard them. I trust that this convention will re-publish them among its documents.

Thus, gentlemen, we have a true picture of our past history and our present position. The agriculturalists, the merchants, the manufacturers, the internal improvement advocates, are represented here. We are here with credentials from executive offices, from municipalities, and public meetings, and represent ten or eleven states. It is difficult to get such a convention together. The work before us is great and pressing, and shall we be content to adjourn before it is performed?

Gentlemen, a great reform, like that which is necessary in our position, is not to be achieved in a day. It requires organization, agitation, the dissemination of information, the frequent meeting of practical men, memorials and addresses. The day of deliberation is at last followed by the day of action. It is thus that conventions have their great value. They bring about an association of effort, arouse dormant energies, stimulate emulation. They are a blessed invention of our popular institutions, and are not less in importance than the meeting of our constituted authorities.

It is the misfortune with us, that when we have been aroused in the past, it has been by paroxysms, and never followed by sustained efforts. We have come together in convention, but when the convention adjourned, there was the end of it. No body had power to act in the recess. The thing soon passed out of mind. Thus was it with the Commercial Convention of Augusta, of Macon, and Charleston—the rail-road meetings of Memphis and St. Louis; and thus will it be with those the other day of Richmond and Macon; and thus will it be with ours, unless we take some measures to prevent it; and what are those measures?

Let us preserve and perpetuate this organization. Let the members now present, who have been selected as judiciously as any that ever met in the country, resolve that they will continue these meetings, and carry on these discussions, until all the great fruits we desire are reaped. It may take years—be it so—but let us not adjourn absolutely now. Let this convention resolve itself into an association for the promotion of the great industrial interests of the Southern and Western states. Let us provide for its future annual meetings, say at Nashville, at Jackson, at St. Louis, at Mobile, at Charleston, etc. Let the next meeting be at Nashville, in January, 1853. Let us appoint committees now, in each of the states, to report at that meeting upon all the great questions. Let the Nashville Committee be charged with the duties of getting up the next convention, and sending out the address. Thus this convention will become in

* For proceedings of these Conventions, see De Bow's Review, vol. III. IV. V. VI.

time the great centre of the industrial interests of this region. It will collect through its committees and correspondence extensive information, which will be distributed gratuitously at the annual meetings. No one can estimate the good that will be effected. It will be the focus to which leading practical minds will be drawn. It will be in session always by its committees. It will be felt each moment, and throughout all our limits. No more powerful agency could be devised. The men of science have found it so, with their society meeting, by turn, in all of the great cities of the Union. So with the physicians, whose convention adjourns over annually, from one part of the Union to another. Why should not a like plan be adopted by the practical and industrial interests which involve everything of our future hopes and prospects?

Gentlemen, resolutions will be offered in the convention, corresponding with these views. I trust that they will be adopted, and that the members here assembled will pledge themselves to each other to continue to meet at the stated annual points; that they will prepare for these meetings by the collection of information, and if placed upon committees, that they will cordially and earnestly perform the duties entrusted to them; that they will operate upon their communities in keeping up fresh appointments of delegates, direct from the people, from year to year. The matter involves a little pains and a little expense, but who would decline as much in promoting such great results; and what citizen can be true to his country who would hesitate to serve her thus? The beneficent effects will accrue to us, and to those who may succeed us on the stage, in all the future. For this consummation let us devoutly pray.

SPEECH OF JUDGE MILLS,

OF TEXAS.

Judge Mills, of Texas, presented a paper containing, he remarked, some resolutions, relative to the withdrawal of the Texas delegation from the Convention, and he asked that the resolutions be laid on the table without being read, to be taken up to-morrow morning.

The delegation from Texas, he said, were in an anomalous position in the Convention, and he would observe that it was somewhat ominous that there was not a single representative on the floor from the part of Texas interested in the projected Opelousas road. Mr. Benjamin had—and he (Col. M.) acknowledged his great abilities as a speaker and as a lawyer, as well as his thorough knowledge of the aims of the people of New-Orleans—Mr. Benjamin had said in his speech last evening, that New-Orleans could afford no aid to local rail-roads. To the mind of Col. M., it was difficult to determine what local rail-roads were, for each local road was, in his opinion, a part of a grand system.

Mr. Benjamin had also said that at present there were but two routes that could receive the aid of New-Orleans, in neither of which was North-eastern Texas, the only part of the state represented in the Convention, interested. If these were the objects of the Convention, the few delegates from North-eastern Texas had no business in it; they had no right to vote on questions only affecting other states.

[Mr. Walker, of New-Orleans, conceived the gentleman had misinterpreted the remarks of Mr. Benjamin, and in order to dispose of this delicate matter at once, he (Mr. W.) moved that the resolutions be taken up and acted on forthwith.]

Judge Mills was happy to hear from a gentleman who appeared to understand the remarks of Mr. Benjamin better than he (M.) did, say that he misconceived their purport and tendency. He had supposed that Mr. Benjamin had said that New-Orleans could now only afford to aid two roads, the Opelousas and the Jackson roads, the former of which only concerned Texas.

Now this road was projected to run through the extreme southern part of Texas, and the people in the north and northeast had no interest whatever in it. His constituents asked nothing of New-Orleans, or of Louisiana, but to give them a road to the state line. Thence the farmers and planters of Northern Texas—maugre all suppositions to the contrary—would build the road, without foreign aid through Texas. He had lived in Texas some twelve years, and traveled over as much of the state perhaps as many in it, and his observation was that the country proposed as the route for the Opelousas road was the poorest in the whole state. A large portion of it produced nothing but salamanders and prickly pears, which, if articles of commerce, the mention of them in the market reports had thus far escaped his attention; whilst on the other hand, a road through the Red River country in Louisiana and North-eastern and Northern Texas to El Paso, there to meet the great Pacific road, would

pass over a soil unsurpassed, in its whole extent, in fertility. Another matter to be considered, was that New-Orleans or Louisiana met neither with rivalry nor opposition on this route, whereas taking the southern route, there were Galveston, Matagorda, and San Antonio to contend with, who would instinctively oppose the project, inasmuch as it jeopardized their own prosperity, if not their very existence.

The interests of North-eastern Texas were identical with those of New-Orleans and Louisiana, and the whole northern part might be made equally tributary by the construction of the road he suggested. New-Orleans was their mart, and they were willing to bear a great deal and continue her as their mart. But gentlemen should bear in mind that the people were grumbling loudly; that besides the difficulties of reaching this market, there were other matters of serious complaint. One fact he would mention as an illustration; and what he said, he did not vouch for the truth of, but mentioned it as a matter generally talked of and grumbled at. Above the White Oak Shoals, on the Red River, it was a well-known fact, that only two steamboats had ever been wrecked, whilst below the Shoals casualties were of frequent occurrence. Yet the people above the Shoals complained that they were charged by the New-Orleans people more for insurance from above the Shoals than was charged for the whole distance below. Thus insurance to Shreveport was one and the half of one per cent.; to the Shoals, two and one half of one per cent.; and above the Shoals four per cent. And this, too, when the Boston offices insured goods by sea from that city, to above the Shoals, taking not only marine and river hazards, but also the risks of ox-cart navigation, for one and the half of one per cent.

And whilst on this subject he would speak of other matters the people in the country were talking much about, and in mentioning them, he wished to say that he spoke to the merchants and people of New-Orleans as a friend, as one who wished her to be prosperous. He did not know whether the things so freely talked about were true or not, but they were very generally spoken. The cotton merchants in New-Orleans, it was said, from the great competition among the presses, paid no expense whatever on the cotton consigned to them from the moment it was landed on the Levee; the presses, draying, and stowing it gratuitously to secure the compressing, was paid by the purchaser or shipper. Yet, when the planter looked over his account sales, he found drayage, he found storage, and when he asked the factor why drayage? why storage? was answered that the matter was regulated by the Chamber of Commerce. It might be so, he did not know to the contrary. It might be law in Louisiana, but the people in his country did not understand this way of making a living.

He desired to be understood that he did not say these things for himself. He liked New-Orleans; he had a great deal of fun in his annual visits to it, and had no idea of getting a fight on his hands by putting forth the statements as his own. He had simply repeated what the farmers and planters said.

Now, although Yankeedom did charge somewhat less for insurance, the people of Northeastern Texas felt that their interests were tied up with those of New-Orleans and Louisiana, and all they asked was that Louisiana should send a rail-road to the line. Let this be done, and they would give New-Orleans draying, storage, and stealage. He had now made his speech, and would withdraw his resolutions.

REMARKS OF J. P. BENJAMIN, ESQ.

[It is due to Mr. Benjamin to state, that our notice of his remarks is taken from one of the city papers, and as it was understood the speech would be written out, the notice is very meagre. On applying to Mr. Benjamin, he frankly stated that engagements of a very pressing character rendered it impossible that he could furnish the manuscript. As the speech was a long and powerful one in many respects, we could not omit a reference to it when publishing the Reports of the Convention.]

He commenced by remarking, that notwithstanding the sneers cast at New-Orleans, we had been acting not for two or three months past, but for some years. Many gentlemen had for a long time past been engaged in perfecting the measures which had finally resulted in the gathering of this Convention.

The position of New-Orleans was such that no combination could wrest from us its advantages eventually; there was a trade belonging to us which could not be taken away; but the question was, whether we should wait for the ultimate action by which the products of the vast Southwest should be brought to us, or whether we should anticipate that action by a present determined and concerted effort.

We desire to be bound up in a common interest with the South, and the Southwest, and the Northwest, and the East. To effect this we must commence with the great national object of obtaining the most direct line of communication with those states. By

building a rail-road to Jackson we strike the direct Northern range, and bring ourselves in communication with the air line leading to New-York, or in other words, we are brought within three days' travel of the Eastern states. After compassing the measures for securing the connection from Jackson Northward and Eastward, we should pause for the present. He was aware that many members of the Convention differed with him in opinion, but he felt bound to remind the gentlemen of the old adage that, if we endeavor to grasp too much, we may lose all.

Mr. Benjamin went on to remark that New-Orleans had not so far retrograded as many people were disposed to say. On the contrary, he could prove statistically that we had progressively advanced, and are still advancing every year. In addition to this we had a position superior to that of any spot in the Union. We were naturally destined to be the centre of a vast and immense trade now in its infancy, but destined in years not far removed to swell into gigantic proportions. It is a position which cannot fail eventually to secure to us the commerce of China and the East, for within a stone's throw we have the route which nature seems to have pointed out as the pass to the Eastern World. Of course he alluded to the Tehuantepec route, the success of which he could say, would shortly be placed beyond all peradventure. It will not be long before a neighboring republic will abandon its selfish policy, and surrender the route which we require for the peaceful purposes, not of ourselves, but of the world. When that route shall have been completed, the whole travel to the East must almost of necessity pass through New-Orleans. It opened a vista of boundless wealth, such as human imagination could scarcely conceive.

To encourage and foster these projects was, in his opinion, the object of the Convention. He, for one, could not at this stage promise any help to the local roads; he said so with a perfect knowledge of the displeasure which he would incur, on the part of many members of the Convention.

Mr. Benjamin then went on to review the prospects of obtaining the means for building these roads. Despite everything that had been said to the contrary, we shall certainly obtain a large amount of individual subscriptions. He had been accused of being too sanguine, but experience had demonstrated to him that the people of New-Orleans were exceedingly liberal, and always willing to put their hands in their pockets. Why, when the Tehuantepec enterprise was first started, the citizens of New-Orleans, without knowing whether they would obtain any equivalent, subscribed \$500,000, and paid up 5 per cent. And when at a later period it became necessary to raise additional funds to prosecute the necessary surveys, ten citizens gave each \$5,000 in cash. The liberal manner in which the citizens had come forward subsequently to sustain the Jackson Rail-road spoke loudly in their favor, and showed conclusively that the residents are willing and anxious to foster enterprise. The absentees are those who are not willing to contribute. In view of all these facts, he felt assured that we could rely on a large amount of voluntary subscriptions.

The next resource open to us consisted in Congressional grants of public lands, and this was a most important and desirable aid; one that ought to be secured as essential in the construction of rail-roads. We must therefore instruct our Representatives in Congress to urge these grants to the best of their abilities.

Having disposed of these two points, Mr. Benjamin approached the question of taxation. On this subject the gentleman was very explicit, and laid down his propositions most intelligibly. He was not in favor of irresponsible taxation, but of the only just and equitable mode of imposing contributions, that is, by the people themselves. Efforts had been made to place the matter in a wrong light, but he conceived there could not be the slightest impropriety in taxing property for the construction of improvements, when the property holders who are to be benefited by these improvements, assent to the tax. By these means also you reach the absentees, those vampires who extract the last cent they can from the needy citizen, and spend their fortunes abroad.

Mr. Benjamin concluded by a digression on the general result of rail-roads. It has been the fashion of late to sneer at our forefathers and the principles inculcated by the founders of this country. It has been stated, and it is openly avowed by some, that we must go abroad and spread republican principles in foreign countries. That was not our mission—our aim ought to be far higher—far nobler. Anxious as he might be to see republican principles spread over the entire surface of the globe, he was not in favor of seeing them enforced by the bayonet, but by the peaceful conquest of rail-roads. Our mission was to convert the vast wastes and wildernesses of the country into smiling pastures and fertile fields. The whistle of the steam-engine was more consonant to the ears of the people than the trumpet of war. He for one did not wish to see this government intervene in the affairs of foreign nations; he desired to see this country grow up by the regular growth of sound muscular strength to a sturdy manhood. The example of such a country would be a more efficient intervention than that of the sword. It would do more to effect the spread of republican principles than all the cartridge-boxes in the universe. It would be a practical intervention, such as Washington himself would have approved of—a peaceful and quiet intervention, and the only one which the good sense of the American people will tolerate.

REMARKS OF COLONEL TARPLEY,

OF MISSISSIPPI.

Col. Tarpley, of Mississippi, desired to call up the resolutions presented last evening by Col. Lathrop, expressive of the necessity of the legislature altering the restrictive constitution, which prevents Louisiana, at present, from engaging in any extended system of financial improvements, and also pointing out several important projects which the Convention ought to foster.

The resolutions having been read, Mr. Lathrop offered another set as a substitute, which do not differ, however, materially from those previously presented. After, Mr. Lathrop had spoken briefly in support of the resolutions, Col. Tarpley arose, and spoke eloquently in their behalf, touching also on the important objects for which this Convention had assembled. He commenced by observing, that he did not expect to shed any new light on the subjects before this body, yet he was willing to contribute his humble mite in the great cause which had brought them together.

He came before the Convention as an humble advocate of those improvements which tended to advance human happiness, to increase the reward of labor, and to diffuse prosperity, wealth and comfort amongst the masses of the country. Col. Tarpley here alluded to the cold response with which his previous efforts had been met by the citizens of New-Orleans, when he attempted to arouse them to the necessity of perfecting a rail-road communication with Mississippi, and thence westward. Two years since, only a few persons could be gathered together to counsel on these important matters; but now, thank God, a great change had taken place. The small stone which had been set in motion had now grown into a mighty mountain, which was carrying everything before it in favor of rail-roads and internal improvements.

Col. Tarpley then took occasion to refer to the charges brought against some of the merchants of New-Orleans, by Col. Mills, of Texas. For many years past he (Col. T.) had been engaged in the cultivation of cotton, and had shipped his crops both to New-Orleans and Liverpool, and he was free to confess that the gentleman was mistaken. On the contrary, he had always found the New-Orleans merchants most liberal in their dealings,—far more so, indeed, than those abroad. He had not come, however, for the purpose of removing the imputation cast upon a worthy portion of the community of this city, but rather with the view of advancing a great scale of internal improvements, to connect the Mexican Gulf with the western section of our country, the first link of which would be the construction of a rail-road to Jackson, and thence to Nashville. Far be it from him, however, to say that his views were narrowed down to this project only; on the contrary, he was for giving a hearty support to that national undertaking, he might call it, which was destined to connect New-Orleans with our possessions on the Pacific, and eventually bring to us the trade of the Eastern world.

But the subject of immediate advantage, he conceived, for New-Orleans, was to regain, or maintain, at least, that trade which was being annually and rapidly extracted from us. The statistics of the commerce of New-Orleans, made up yearly on the 1st September, shows conclusively, that in 1850 and 1851, the tonnage and business of New-Orleans had decreased. The falling off was most decided. How was this tale accounted for? The labors of the husbandman had met with their due reward; no falling off had taken place in the production of those supplies upon which New-Orleans relied for her support: but still the stumbling fact was there, that New-Orleans had lost much. And naturally so; for it is within the past two years that the artificial channels, constructed at great cost, to wrest from us our commerce, have borne their rich fruits. Would the people of New-Orleans continue to look on calmly at this abstraction of their life-blood! He trusted not. Indeed, he felt a pride in looking at the intelligent body before him, and was assured by their presence and spirit that this state of things could last no longer. He could already perceive, in imagination, the iron arms stretching forth from the city, and grasping the products which, by right, ought to flow into the great Southern emporium.

Col. Tarpley then referred to the local advantages growing out of the establishment of rail-roads. He contended that no community could enjoy a great degree of prosperity by engaging simply in commercial transactions. To build up solid wealth we must have manufactures. These we could only have in connection with rail-roads, for if we remain isolated, we fail to give encouragement to the artisan to establish himself in our midst. A reference to the value of manufactures afforded the speaker an opportunity of noticing the shoe-trade of Massachusetts, the value of which was immense. Then, again, the article of furniture, of which we imported largely. The mahogany grown in Honduras was taken to the North, manufactured there and exported to this city. It was just as easy to get the raw material direct and manufacture it here; but why was it not done? Because we have not that redundancy of population essential to manufactures, and that redundancy will never be our lot until we construct rail-roads. Increase the facilities of communication, and you not only build up a new country, new farms and cities on the route of that communication, but you also invite emigration from all quarters. Such will be the happy

results if we put our shoulders to the wheel, and enter heartily upon the important objects for which the Convention had assembled. Col. Tarpley dwelt at considerable length on this point, but our limited space prevents us from following him closely.

The speaker then alluded to the country through which the proposed railroad communication to the West was to go. At present it contained a sparse population, and the cultivation of the soil was scarcely diversified. Up to this moment, the only article produced was cotton, inasmuch as it admitted of comparatively easier transportation; but augment the facilities of getting there, and there is no staple product raised in the South and West that we cannot furnish. And look at the advantages that would result to New-Orleans from such a communication. Apart from the increased wealth that would flow into her coffers, the comforts and convenience of every inhabitant would be vastly increased. Our citizens would then be able to live economically and cheaply, and that fact, once known, would augment our population in an amazing degree.

Col. Tarpley referred to the mode in which taxation had been carried out in Mississippi for the construction of rail-roads. It was a system that must be introduced in Louisiana, for in carrying out the important projects we have at heart, it will not do to rely on individual aid and subscriptions only. When he saw around him the numerous evidences of wealth in New-Orleans, and knew that much of it was owned abroad, he felt the necessity of making these absentees contribute to the construction of rail-roads.

Col. Tarpley appealed to those whose pockets were not open to the call of patriotism, but could only be unlocked by motives of interest, to bear in mind that there was no project which promised a more profitable return than a rail-road from Nashville to this city. Admitting even that not a single additional bale of cotton was produced, and still the freight and commerce of the road must yield rich returns. But when we know that this supposition is not admissible; that the trade must increase immeasurably; that new farms and new plantations will be daily opened; that towns and villages will spring up in the wilderness; that, in a word, the desert will blossom like a rose; there are no means of estimating accurately the profits of such an undertaking. Why, the travel alone on the road would pay a large per centage on its cost.

Col. Tarpley spoke for an hour and a-half, and wound up with an eloquent appeal to the members of the Convention, and to the community, to come forward and support this great undertaking.

PROPOSED ROUTE FOR THE NEW-ORLEANS, OPELOUSAS, AND TEXAS RAIL-ROAD.

DONALDSONVILLE, June 26, 1851.

GLENDY BURKE, Esq., *Chairman Committee on Rail-roads, &c.*

SIR.—The enthusiasm that prevails at the present time on the subject of rail-roads in our state, and the favor with which was received a suggestion that I advanced to several influential gentlemen of New-Orleans, relative to a new line of direct communication by rail-road, between the city and the town of Washington in the parish of St. Landry, induce me to take the liberty of submitting a rough outline of the proposed route, through you, to the committee which, at the recent Convention, was appointed by the president "to prepare an address setting forth all facts and statistics they can gather on all rail-road projects, in which the state has a direct and immediate interest."

As it appeared to be generally conceded, prior to the assembling of our Convention, that the scheme of a rail-road communication between New-Orleans and Jackson via Baton Rouge, had good prospects of success, and that the line of its route would be along the eastern bank of the Mississippi, passing within a few miles of a point opposite the town of Donaldsonville, it occurred to me, sometime since, that a very advantageous modification might be made in the plan of communication by rail-road between New-Orleans and Washington advocated by Col. Payne, by means of which these two important public enterprises might be made to lend a helping hand to each other, and work in concert towards the grand result aimed at by the convention, as set forth in their resolutions—the equal and mutual advantage of city and country.

The proposition made by me, accordingly, was to effect a connection between the two contemplated lines through a branch to be constructed from the Jackson road to the Mississippi opposite Donaldsonville, and through a steam ferry capable of receiving the train of cars from the Washington road at that point. The latter road I suggested should run as follows: from the point on the Mississippi just designated opposite Donaldson, and on the west bank of the Lafourche down that bayou three miles, then leaving the bayou through the Grand Bayou Pierre part and Grand River settlements to Grand River, twenty-one miles. Grand River to be crossed by means of a bridge; thence, south-westwardly to Grand Lake, nine miles; across that body of water as across the Mississippi, by a steam ferry; thence to the Teche, three miles, and then following the route proposed by Col. Payne, up that stream through Franklin, New-Iberia, St. Martinsville, Vermil-

liouville and Opelousas to the terminus at Washington, seventy miles, a distance all told of 103 miles from the point of departure on the Mississippi.

In favor of the adoption of this line, over any other which has yet been proposed, and more especially over that proposed by Col. Payne, many considerations of great weight may be offered. As my design is only to bring the attention of the committee on the subject, I shall content myself on this occasion with the briefest statement of the most prominent among them.

1st. By the route suggested by me, a saving of seventy-eight miles of road would be effected.

2d. Several very expensive bridges would be dispensed with.

3d. No deep swamps or trembling prairies would be encountered.

4th. Upon the construction of only twenty-one miles of road a direct communication could, within a few months, be established between New-Orleans and the Attakapas parishes, rendering immediately available a largely productive revenue.

5th. There would be secured to the Washington road the strenuous support and co-operation of all capitalists already enlisted in building up the Jackson road.

But, however cogent and unanswerable may be these reasons, they will still be held secondary by the gentlemen of the committee who represent New-Orleans, to any additional consideration, which, in as far as they are concerned, must prove conclusive. The line now recommended, through its connection with the Jackson road, may be regarded as terminating substantially and in effect in the city, and its completion would, of necessity, go far towards enhancing the prosperity of New-Orleans; whilst it must be manifest that the inevitable result of the success of Col. Payne's scheme would be the founding at Algiers of a dangerous commercial rival. Col. Payne's project will not, therefore, I feel assured, receive any encouragement from the moneyed men of New-Orleans, and without their support the country is entirely incompetent to undertake it. The route that I suggest harmonizes all interests, and should meet with equal favor on all hands.

You will permit me a few additional remarks in explanation.

1st. By the adoption of the line proposed by me, a saving of seventy-eight miles in the length of the road; sixty-two miles east and sixteen miles west of the Mississippi—would be effected, as already stated. Now, accepting Col. Payne's data, you will perceive that by this means alone an economy of \$780,000 is realized.

2d. But a further reduction of cost would be secured by the avoidance of the necessity of constructing two expensive bridges, which would have to be erected on Colonel Payne's route: one over the Lafourche, which would scarcely be built for less than \$100,000, and another over the Bayou Boeuf which would call for the outlay of nearly \$50,000.

3d. It should be borne in mind that it is precisely over that portion of this Algiers route, which lies between New-Orleans and the Teche, that the nature of the country presents the most formidable obstacles to a railway communication. I do not hesitate to assert, from my own personal knowledge, that the swamps of this region will present almost insurmountable difficulties to the passage of the road, in the direction indicated by Mr. Payne, and must increase far beyond the amount stated by him [\$10,000] the average cost per mile.

It is susceptible of demonstration, that by adopting the line advocated by me, these several reductions in the cost of the road could be effected, amounting in the aggregate to near \$1,000,000—a sum in itself more than sufficient to finish the other road its entire length. Are there any counterbalancing advantages attending the selection of the Algiers route, which should entitle it to the preference of the committee? I have been able to discover none which could stand the test of serious examination. It has indeed been argued and even assumed, that the support of the parishes of Lafourche Interior and Terrebonne would be gained to that project of communication, and a good deal of influence has been assigned to the assistance which they would furnish; but it seems to me clear that this has been done on premises unworthy of confidence. Lafourche Interior has an excellent channel of navigation open for the greater portion of the year, and at no time more than partially interrupted.

To imagine that for the exclusive advantage of a dozen planters who would reside on the line of the road as it traverses that parish, the remainder of the inhabitants could be induced to submit to the system of taxation upon which so much stress is laid by some enthusiasts, is perfectly visionary; nor is it any less visionary to imagine that any considerable amount of Lafourche sugar would ever take this road to market, inasmuch as at that season when our crops are shipped to the city, the Lafourche planters have for the larger portion of the time a cheaper, safer, and more convenient communication with New-Orleans than could be furnished them by artificial outlets. Terrebonne's geographical position is different, and the planters of that parish unquestionably rest under such inconveniences as might lead them to sustain Mr. Payne's projected road. But it should be recollected that they could be but partially benefited, unless, as suggested by a delegate from that parish to the Convention, a branch road were constructed along the Bayou Terrebonne to connect with the main trunk of road, which trunk must involve an expenditure

of at least \$200,000 to be added to the stupendous cost of the work, admitted by Col. Payne's report to reach already to \$1,000,000.

4th. You will observe, that at a smaller cost than would be required for the erection of the two bridges already spoken of, over the Lafourche and the Beauf, and other bridges required along the route—by the construction of twenty-one miles of road from the Mississippi to Grand River, there could be opened within a year, to the people of the Atakapas, a mode of cheap and easy communication with the city—which could not fail to bring in at once a handsome revenue, and at the same time, confidence in the practicability of the undertaking. If you will refer to Col. Payne's report, the committee will be competent to judge approximately of the amount of travel and freight available as a source of profit. On the other hand, the committee should not lose sight of the fact, that should the scheme of Col. Payne be adopted, it would be utterly impossible to derive the least benefit from the road until after its completion from Algiers to the Lafourche, a distance of sixty miles, which, as I have stated, could not be done at a smaller preliminary cost (not including the bridge) than \$700,000.

In conclusion, an act of the legislature has authorized the incorporation of a company to run a rail-road from the Mississippi to Grand River, and the state has liberally donated such lands as it possessed along the route; the different property-holders through whose possessions the road would pass, have also volunteered the gratuitous cession of such lands as might be needed for the use of the road. An act has been signed for the formation of a company to build the road; but owing to the temporary excitement created in favor of Col. Payne's project, no steps have been recently taken to urge this scheme before the public.

But now that the question of opening a railway communication between New-Orleans and the western portion of Louisiana has been transferred from the decision of popular assemblies to the calmer and wiser judgment of a select committee of practical men, I have thought, as one of those who are interested in having the merits of the route via Donaldsonville fairly tested, that I would draw up for the use of the committee a brief and incomplete sketch as is herein presented to them, being fully prepared, however, when they may deem it advisable, to lay before them a more detailed statement of my views.

I am at this moment engaged in making a survey of the route adopted by the incorporated company referred to; plans of which survey, and of others representing the entire route as suggested, will be forwarded to the committee, should they feel disposed to inspect them.

I am, sir, with the highest respect,

Your obedient servant,

A. J. POWELL.

LETTER FROM HON. EDW. BATES,

OF MISSOURI.

ST. LOUIS, *December 10, 1851.*

MY DEAR SIR,—I received, in due course, your valued letter of the 11th ultimo; and, about the same time, a letter from the committee, of which you are a member, inviting me to attend the convention to be held in New-Orleans in January next. I have waited for sometime, to see if it were possible so to arrange my affairs as to be with you on that interesting occasion.

Pray present my thanks to the committee for their courtesy, and accept my grateful acknowledgments for the kind and complimentary terms in which you are pleased, in your letter, to urge my attendance. If my business would at all permit, I would accept the invitation with pleasure.

Within the last year, I have been invited to attend a number of meetings of the same character, in almost every part of this great valley; all of them having in view the improvement of the old means of transportation, and the making of new ones. It was not my good fortune to be able to attend any of them; but I rejoice that they were held. The fact suffices to prove that everywhere throughout the valley, the people are stirred up, so perity informed of the great duty which a common interest imposes upon them, and conscious of their power to perform it. They will put forth well their individual energies to advance the noble enterprise, and will call upon the government to do its share of the duty, in a voice too loud to be unheard and too significant to go unheeded.

With a constant desire to see your great city, I have never seen it. The summer is not a favorable time to make the visit, and in the winter time I am always closely engaged in necessary labor. But, beyond all considerations of curiosity and personal gratification, I should rejoice in being able to attend the convention, especially with the privilege of participating in its deliberations. Its objects are, to my mind, of the utmost importance—not to the South and West only, but to the whole nation. It proposes to develop and put into useful action the boundless resources of the South and West; to stimulate enterprise and wealth to the establishment of all the arts and manufactures which our con-

dition may require; and to make transportation rapid, safe and cheap, by rail-roads and improved navigation.

Rail-roads and uninterrupted steam navigation work a kind of social miracle upon a great country. When such a country is striped all over with such means of conveyance, it requires no great effort of imagination to conceive a continent roll up like a scroll, bringing its distant parts, for all commercial and social purposes, in close contact with each other, while its natural broad surface is kept spread out, only for the purposes of production and enjoyment.

If the people of the South and West will only set themselves to work in earnest in these noble enterprises—if they will improve the rivers, construct the roads, build up the manufactories, establish lines of commerce straight across the Atlantic, instead of sailing round to New-York and Boston only to pay toll—then we shall not only see the surface of our country enriched and advanced, but we shall breathe a purer moral and political atmosphere. Instead of angry bickerings and dangerous quarrels with our brethren of the North and East, about the blacks, to the total neglect of the true interests of the whites, we will strive with them in the more worthy and patriotic enterprises of peace and friendship; with that honest emulation which brothers may indulge in, we will run the race in the lawful road to wealth and honor.

No plan of improvement, no scheme for the creation of wealth and the advance of civilization, has been presented to my consideration for many years so altogether good, so unmingled with evil, as the system of great enterprises which I understand your proposed convention is expected to initiate. If you can only succeed now in enlisting the sympathies and securing the active co-operation of those who will be first, if not most, benefited by the undertaking, your final success will be put beyond a doubt; and its glorious realities will appear, to those who look but timidly into the distant future, as the wild visions of a feverish dream. But there is no fever nor dream. It is a matter of fact, which judgment can determine and figures can calculate. History will record the beginning, the progress of your plan; and when it is completed, a hundred millions of people will enjoy its fruits, and bless the wisdom and energy that began the work.

I believe it may be stated, as an axiom in political economy, that a given amount of labor will sustain the greatest amount of life, and purchase the greatest amount of comfort, when the producer and consumer are nearest to each other. And when, by artificial means, as rail-roads and improved navigation, the expense and time of transportation are greatly diminished, those causes produce the same effect as physical proximity. Then the producer and consumer are side by side.

The Mississippi is the great natural highway for the trade and business of the broad and diversified country which it drains. In magnitude and extent, in durability and practical value, it is far above all other highways, natural or possible. And, from this postulate, I infer that we who inhabit its valley, and are bound together by ties of interest too strong for us to sever, even if we were foolishly inclined to do so, are required, not less by the duties of patriotism than by the promptings of personal interest, to improve this great highway by all lawful means, and to the extent of its capabilities.

We of the whole valley may well say the Mississippi is our river, and New-Orleans is our store-house; and we will bestow upon them both whatever amount of labor and expense may be necessary to produce the greatest sum of good to the proprietors. But the Mississippi, with all its tributaries, great as it is, and however highly it may be improved, is not enough for the exigencies of our wide country and growing people. All the rich districts of the interior must be penetrated, and their productions brought into usefulness, not as heretofore, by wasting half their value in slow and costly transportation, but by means at once safe, cheap and rapid. Where a river is wanting we must make a railroad; and this, without any great stretch of liberal interpretation, is but an amendment to that magnificent system of internal navigation which nature has made for us in the Mississippi and its branches. Without the rail-roads the system will be incomplete; with them, this mighty valley will present one compact and indissoluble whole, each part of which will reciprocate benefits and blessings with all the rest.

The valley is, in fact, the body of the nation, and its people are emigrants from the older states, who are bound together, brethren of the Atlantic coast, by every tie of friendship and common interest. Be it our task to excite that body into healthful and harmonious action, and our happiness to witness, as the reward of our efforts, a national growth and development which will astonish the world.

My strong desire to see the unity and improvement of the valley, is no selfish or sectional wish. We could not, if we would, monopolize the results of our success. The whole nation must share in its benefits, and the farthest extremities will grow fat and strong with the activity and vigor of the body that nourishes them.

I remain, sir, with the greatest respect,

Your obedient servant,

EDW. BATES.

J. D. B. DE BOW, Esq., one of the Committee, &c.

ROUTE OF THE PACIFIC RAIL-ROAD.

JEFFERSON, (TEXAS.) Dec. 24, 1851.

To J. D. B. De Bow, Esq., *Member of Convention Committee:*

DEAR SIR,—I send you this, thinking it may interest you, and if it reaches you in time, that it may be useful to you at the approaching Rail-road Convention. I traveled once from Vicksburg to Lake Providence, and to a place once called Russellville in Claiborne Parish, and in 1849 from this place by land to San Francisco, so that I am acquainted with nearly the whole of the land route from the Mississippi River to the Pacific. While in California, I conversed with gentlemen who had crossed the country on all known routes from the South Pass to Panama. From all these accounts, and those of Emory, Cooke, Fremont, &c., I am perfectly satisfied that the route I traveled is the smoothest, shortest, and best of all the routes known from the Mississippi River to the Pacific, except, of course, the isthmus routes. The present object is to point out this route, or rather the route for "the great Pacific Rail-road." In my opinion it should leave the river at or near Lake Providence, and proceed thence by the best route through the swamp to Monroe; thence to Red River, above the Raft; thence to Dallas by a straight course; thence to the Brazos, high enough up that river, (say at or near where the Shackelford trail crosses it) to "turn" the mountains that lie between the Colorado and Brazos; thence to the Pecos. Up to this point there would be no obstructions from mountains. The mountains put down on maps east of the Pecos (or Puerco) are imaginary, unless high up or low down. I am quite sure there are none between the 31st and 32d parallels of latitude. The advantage this route has over any other is, that it is straighter, the country is more level, and there are fewer streams to cross; that the Sabine is avoided entirely, and also the Neches; that the Trinity is smaller, and the point where the road would cross it, as well as the Brazos, is above the head of navigation. The Colorado is only a creek. The Pecos would be crossed on any of the proposed routes at nearly the same point. West of the Pecos to the Rio Grande, the country is a plain, interrupted by the Guadalupe chain of mountains and the Waco chain. Each of these may be crossed by passes not very difficult, which you can judge is the case when ox and mule teams, heavily laden, passed through with very little improvement on them. These passes are laid down on maps by — Creuzbanc, of the land office at Austin, from reports by Major Neighbors, and others. The Shackelford trail from Clarksville, in Red River county, falls into the routes he lays down, at the Pecos. From El Paso, the road would turn southward about thirty miles to "turn" a range of mountains, and thus obtain a nearly perfect level to Coratitit; thence to Janas; thence to Pimo village on the Rio Gila, or to some point below; thence down the Gila to the Colorado; thence to Carissa Creek. At this point the road would enter the California mountains; and by reference to Col. Emory's map, it is, at a place nearly due-east from San Diego. Perhaps the boundary surveys may bring to our knowledge some route more direct than that of Emory, which was the same that I traveled in 1849. To Emory's Report I refer you as the probable difficulties of surmounting these mountains, and these are common to all the routes yet proposed. There may be another way which has not yet been explored:—it is to cross the Colorado and proceed to Walker's Pass, as laid down in Col. Fremont's Report; thence down the San Joaquin to Stockton; or by crossing the coast range, the road would reach San Francisco by the valleys of the San Joaquin, Rio Salinas, (wrongly called "Beneventura" on most maps,) and San Jose. But there is much doubt about the practicability of reaching Walker's Pass from the mouth of the Gila, or any other way higher up, i. e., farther north. But to return.

From El Paso to the Cordilleras of California at Carissa Creek, the way is mostly a dead level. There would be two ridges of mountains to cross. The Guadalupe Pass, described by Col. Cooke, is by far the worse of these two. There are several other ridges of mountains to cross, but the passes are so good naturally, that the grading would be trifling. On the lower part of the Gila the road would have to be built on the sides of the mountains to avoid overflows. The valley of the Colorado would have to be passed in the same way as the Mississippi swamp, to avoid overflow. The distance from Lake Providence by this route is 1,750 or 1,800 miles. A very large part of it is a dead level, and only that part between Carissa Creek and San Diego is mountainous, with about five miles at the Guadalupe mountain east of El Paso, and two or three at the Waco mountain—about three miles at the "South Pass," (the passage way across the ridge east of the "Guadalupe Pass,") which latter is eighteen or twenty miles. The next most difficult place is in Louisiana. In my opinion, it will cost more from Lake Providence to cross Red River, than from that point to El Paso, for the grading. I feel no doubt but that thorough surveys will prove the above to be the shortest, levellest, cheapest and most practicable route for a rail-road from the Mississippi River. There is as much, if not more timber on it than any other; and there are immense beds of coal on the Sulphur fork, near which it would pass.

But it will be objected, that that part of the above route is within the territory of Mexico. This is true; but it will be recollected that the United States have bound themselves by treaty to prevent depredations on the Mexican territory. Now, what I contend for is, that the only way practicable for them to do this is to build this very road. If the

United States do not prevent these depredations, they will have to pay the damages. If they attempt to do it by military posts immediately on the National line, the rugged character of the country, and the great expense of hauling supplies, would render it a most extravagant affair. But the United States could doubtless secure the right of way, or buy the territory down to a certain degree of latitude, say the thirty-first. There are many extremely fertile tracts of country along the line indicated for the road, and these would sell, when the building of the road became a certainty, for more than enough to reimburse the whole expense. I cannot now go into particulars, but can do so, as I have a journal of my whole route. In the Texas section, nearly or quite all the land from El Paso to the country a short distance west of Dallas, is yet vacant, and no doubt the state would make very liberal grants. And in Louisiana, there is yet much vacant land which might be obtained. A great part of the distance in Texas is equal to any land in the world, and abounds in building stone of the best description. And the whole road would run through a country better by far than that on any other route.

If the United States do not build the road, let them get the land necessary from Mexico, and doubtless a company would be formed which would build it, and in a space of time after it was once commenced, much shorter than many now imagine. I will say nothing of advantages to the United States, and particularly to the South, this road would produce. I will only observe, that this road would do more to maintain the relative importance of the South, to prevent encroachments on her rights, and to preserve the "Union," than all the compromises and "Union" philanderings that ever were uttered. To maintain herself, the South must *do* as well as *talk*; and never was there a more pressing necessity for it than now. If this road were built, a trade would pass over it that no one dreams of. It would create a trade along its own course that would pay well for its construction. Then the United States would save immense sums in transportation of arms, troops, and supplies to California, Oregon, Utah, New-Mexico, &c. They would save much in the transportation of the mail, which would be greatly expedited. It would lay open the trade of all the west coast of America—the East Indies, China, probably Japan, &c., the amount of which is incalculable. And it would bring us into communication with an exceedingly valuable mining country, namely, that of the Cordilleras Mountains. Another word: By the termination being at Lake Providence, I think New-Orleans and the other towns on the Mississippi would be more benefited than if it were at Vicksburg, Natchez, or any other point where roads would connect with it from the East. Owing to the immense and deep swamp on the east side of the Mississippi at Lake Providence, this could not be done, or if possible, only at an immense cost.

In haste, yours, &c.,

F. C. BAKER.

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

1.—CUBA STATISTICS.

The following statistics are taken in part from a pamphlet entitled "Cuba in 1851," and said to be officially correct, and in part from other reliable sources.

Cuba was discovered by Christopher Columbus, on the 27th of October, 1492. It is situated between 23 degrees 12 minutes, and 19 degrees 43 minutes, north latitude. It is about 800 miles long, and in width varies from 25 to 130 miles. According to Humboldt, it contains an area of 43,380 square miles; by others, it is estimated as low as 32,807. Its extent of territory, according to the statistics of 1850, comprises 24,148,509 acres, of which, about one-twelfth is under cultivation. Its soil is one of the most fertile in the world, favorable to the growth of all tropical fruits and productions. The cultivation of sugar cane was introduced about 1580, and slaves began to be imported four years afterwards. Havana, its most important city, was founded in 1519, and now contains about 200,000 inhabitants, a number just equal to the total Indian population of the whole island when discovered.

The trade of Cuba was very insignificant when the United States declared their independence, and was confined to Santiago de Cuba on the south side of the island. Since then, its advancement in population and commerce has been remarkable, far surpassing the growth of any other Spanish colony.

Its population at several periods, commencing with 1775, has been as follows:

1775.....	170,000
1791.....	272,000
1817.....	598,000
1827.....	730,000
1841.....	1,007,624
1850.....	1,247,230

Increase in 75 years, 1,077,230.

Its increase in imports, exports and revenues, has been no less remarkable, as will be seen by a glance at the subjoined table :

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Revenues.
1828.....	\$19,534,922.....	\$13,414,362.....	\$9,086,406
1847.....	32,389,117.....	27,998,770.....	12,808,713
Increase....	\$12,854,197	\$14,584,408	\$3,722,307

In 19 years. It will be remarked here, that the principal seat of trade is now on the northern part of the island next to the United States, and not on the southern side as in 1775. So that its growth in both trade and population seems to be identified in a great measure with the development and progress of our government. The value of its agricultural productions in 1849 was \$62,781,035. Its exports during the same period were \$27,380,921, of which \$8,706,224 were to the United States. Its imports during the same period were \$26,707,343, of which \$7,230,214 were from the United States. The amount of American tonnage employed in the trade of the island, during the same period, was 501,267 tons.

The entries of vessels from the United States, Spain, England and France, amounted in 1847 to 3,493, of which 2,012 were to the United States. Clearances during the same year, 3,043, of which 1,722 were to the United States; thus showing the vast preponderance of trade with this country over any other.

The total amount of taxes levied upon American commerce with the island, in the shape of duties upon imports, tonnage duties, and duties upon exports, exceeds \$4,000,000 annually. There are 359 miles of railway in operation upon the island. Of the \$27,000,000 of annual imports, according to official documents, \$16,000,000 are in provisions, lumber, fabrics, materials, &c., which our country could furnish more readily than any other; but, through the taxes and restrictions imposed by Spanish policy, not more than one-third of it comes from the fields and factories of the United States.

Cuba is divided into three departments—Western, Eastern and Central. These departments are subdivided into twenty-five jurisdictions. The jurisdiction of Havana is the largest, the Western department, and it contains one city, 60 small towns, 35 villages, 437 sugar estates, 520 coffee plantations, and is inhabited by 454,000 persons. Havana, the principal city of the island, and the capital, as a commercial city, compared with places in the Western world, ranks next to New-York and New-Orleans. The value of the exports and imports together, exceed fifty millions of dollars per annum. In 1847, about 644,853 boxes of sugar were exported from this port, and 82,000 quintals of coffee, 32,000 hogsheads of molasses, 198,267,000 segars, and 25,000 quintals of tobacco.

The following is the classification of the population of Cuba in 1850:

Creole whites.....	520,000	
Spaniards.....	35,000	
Troops and mariners.....	23,000	
Foreigners.....	10,560	
Floating population.....	17,000	605,560
Free mulattoes.....	118,200	
Free blacks.....	87,370	205,870
Slave mulattoes.....	11,100	
Slave blacks.....	425,000	436,100 641,670
Total.....		1,247,230

Whole number capable of bearing arms, including whites, Spaniards, slaves, &c., 393,000.

In 1850, the number of sugar estates on the island amounted to 1442; coffee estates to 1618; tobacco plantations to 9101, and 9930 grazing farms, and 223 towns. Wax is produced to the amount of about 800,000 pounds, and honey to the amount of 2,000,000 gallons. Cattle to the number of about 900,000 head are owned in the island, and there are about 200,000 horses and 50,000 mules.

In minerals, the island is very rich; of copper mines, no less than 114 have been discovered in the island, 57 in the Eastern department, 18 in the Central, and 45 in the Western. The mine at Cobre, worked by an English company, has shipped from 27,000 to 43,000 tons per annum. Coal, iron, silver, and amethysts have been discovered.

In 1847, the government revenues amounted to \$12,808,713.

2.—PROGRESS OF STEAM NAVIGATION.

"NOW AND THEN."

The New-York Times gives an interesting relic of the "good old days" of slow and sure traveling, in the shape of an advertisement which appeared in a New-York paper of the date of October 5, 1807, and which illustrates most strikingly the progress of enterprise and improvement:

"The Steamboat being thoroughly repaired and arranged for passengers, with a private dressing-room for ladies, it is intended to run her as a packet between New-York and Albany, for the remainder of the season. She will leave New-York exactly at 9 o'clock in the morning of the following days, and always perform her voyage in from 30 to 36 hours:

Monday.....	Sept. 23	Monday.....	Oct. 12
Friday.....	Oct. 2	Friday.....	Oct. 16
Wednesday.....	Oct. 7		

The charge to each passenger is as follows:

To Newburgh.....	\$3	14 hours.
To Poughkeepsie.....	4	17 hours.
To Esopus.....	4½	20 hours.
To Hudson.....	5	30 hours.
To Albany.....	7	36 hours.

"For places, apply to Mr. Vandervoort, No. 48 Cortland-street, at the corner of Greenwich-street."

One month previous to the date of that advertisement, Fulton's boat first undertook the arduous task of steadily running on the North River, for the transmission of passengers. The journey to Albany, a distance of 160 miles from New-York, was then accomplished in the steamboat in 36 hours; it is now run by boats in short of seven hours. At the time when Fulton started his enterprise, 36 years ago, no other steamboat floated on the waters of the world; the mind is overwhelmed with wonder at the change that has been effected in this short period, by the genius and enterprise of man.

The success of the scheme was then very much of a problem; many were scouting the affair altogether, while there were others who had faith in the invention, and predicted its ultimate success.

The following communication in the *Evening Post*, Oct. 4, 1807, was doubtless regarded as the emanation of a crack-brained enthusiast:

"Among thousands who viewed the scene, permit a spectator to express his gratification at the sight this morning of the steamboat proceeding on her trip to Albany, on a wind and swell of tide which appeared to bid defiance to every attempt to perform the voyage. The steamboat appeared to glide as easy and rapidly as though it were calm, and the machinery was not in the least impeded by the waves of the Hudson, the wheels moving with their usual velocity and effect.

"The experiment of this day removes every doubt hitherto entertained of the practicability of the steamboat being able to work in rough weather. Without being over sanguine, we may safely assert, that the principles of this important discovery will be applied to the improvement of packets and passage boats, which for certainty, safety, expedition and accommodation, will far surpass anything hitherto attempted. The invention is highly honorable to Mr. Fulton, and reflects infinite credit on the genius of our country.

NEW-YORK."

Commenting on the boldness of this confident correspondent, the *Times* says: "Time has justified the vision of this seer, and gone infinitely further than the promise. Could the veil of the "to come" have been lifted before the eyes of the prophet, and the log-book of the *Baltic*, or the time-table of a railway train been presented to him, how inconceivable must have been his astonishment! How short the time it takes now-a-days to work wonders!"

The trip from New-York to Albany is now performed on the Hudson Rail-road in four hours.

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

ROBERT F. W. ALLSTON, OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 17.

THIS gentleman, who is one of the most practical and well-informed rice planters of South Carolina, and one of the highest-toned and most enterprising citizens, eminently deserves a place in our gallery of useful men.

The first acquaintance we had the honor of forming personally with Colonel Allston, though we had been familiar with his reputation from early life, was at Memphis, in 1849, where we served together as delegates to the great Rail-road Convention, in which he represented his native state, and presided as one of the Vice-Presidents. He is, perhaps, as widely known among the planters of the South, as any gentleman engaged in the pursuits of agriculture, for his very able, thorough, and altogether invaluable Memoir upon the Rice Plant, which appeared in the pages of the Review in 1846, and was quoted, read, and admired in every quarter of the country. Such an essential act of service to the agriculture of the South, cannot be spoken of in terms as high as it deserves. Its influence has been widely and beneficially felt; and we wish that among our intelligent and educated planters the example were oftener followed, of diffusing the lights of experience and study, as was done in this instance in regard to one of our most important crops.

Col. Allston was born in April, 1801, on the place where he now resides, near Georgetown, S. C., and still cultivates the paternal acres, which have, under his administration, been doubled in value. He is descended from Benjamin Allston, jr., and more remotely from William Allston, of the War of Independence, and William Allston, sen., who was a planter on the Great Pee-Dee.

Col. Allston was graduated in 1821, at West Point Military Institute, having pursued a course of diligent study in that institution for four years, maintaining for himself a fair standing and position. In relation to this portion of his life, he conceives that much of his success as a planter has grown out of the principles of science then acquired. "The knowledge acquired at West Point of chemistry, electricity, mechanics, and engineering, although far short of what it ought to have been, had I duly improved my opportunities, has been of daily and extensive service to me in my vocation. After the training of a judicious mother, I owe my success in life to the discipline of mind and body, the justness of thinking, the decision and promptness of execution, which I either acquired or improved during my four years' course at this time-honored institution."

Having received a commission in the 3d artillery, Colonel Allston served a short time in the army, being attached to Col. Carey's Brigade of Topographical Engineers, at that time engaged in the coast survey. From this service he was forced to return to the aid of a widowed mother, oppressed with the cares incident to an embarrassed estate, and a long minority of her three sons.

Colonel Allston was elected Surveyor-General of the State of South Carolina, in 1822-3, and served in that capacity for four years. In 1828, he was chosen to the State Legislature, serving also for four years, and voting with Harper, Preston, &c., for convoking the people in convention, in order to pronounce upon the unconstitutionality of the protective tariff. From the House he was transposed to the Senate, in 1832, and

has continued to be a member of that body down to the present time; having been elected two years ago to preside over its deliberations. As a legislator, he has ever been known as a business man, seldom speaking to any question, and then only a few words. His efforts have been largely devoted to the cause of public education in the state; and a bill reported by him, providing for the appointment of a State Superintendent of Free Schools, in two instances received the vote of the Senate, but failed in the other House. Eventually, (in 1849,) it was passed in a shape which authorized the governor to appoint such an officer for one year, to collect educational statistics, &c.

It may be observed, in this connection, that the cause of popular education, strange as it may seem, is not one in South Carolina, which politicians, ambitious of distinction, are willing to take up. They shrink from the responsibility of proposing the taxation which it necessarily involves, forgetting that the highest duty of the statesman is to instruct and direct the public mind in all great and salutary measures. The whole free school fund of the state is only \$37,000, whilst double that sum would scarcely be adequate. In his admirable and elaborate report upon the subject, Colonel Allston recommended this increase, and that the parishes and districts assess upon the inhabitants and property-holders a tax for school purposes, equal in amount to the proportion of the fund received by them from the public treasury. In a limited degree this measure has been carried out in Charleston; but only, it is believed, for the purpose of building school-houses. Though, in proof of a better sentiment abroad, it may be observed, that the gentlemen lately acting as chairmen of the Committee on Education, who originated and presented favorably the resolution relating to Free Schools, which passed both houses in the year 1849, were promoted the following year to the Chairs of President and Speaker of their respective houses.

Col. Allston has served for about twelve years in the militia of South Carolina, in

both the line and staff of the fourth division. In 1842, he respectfully, but peremptorily, refused to allow his name to be used in connection with the office of Governor, giving offence by his course to many personal and political friends, which was remembered afterwards. As all the facts in the case are perfectly familiar in South Carolina, it is unnecessary for us to recapitulate them, or to do more than to express the conviction that he acted throughout from high and conscientious motives.

The sessions of the Legislature being over, (they are very short in that state,) Col. Allston retires to his residence on the Pee Dee, in the winter, and on the shore of the Atlantic in the summer, devoting himself to his private and trust affairs,* and to the requirements of elegant and social life. He is a very active and useful member of the Winyoh and All-Saints' Agricultural Society, and the State Agricultural Society, now unfortunately meeting no more. He is also member and President of the *Winyoh Indico-Society*, which dispenses charitable education upon an income of \$12,000, and which was chartered nearly one hundred years ago.

In 1832, Col. Allston married the daughter of William Petigru, of Abbeville, S. C., whose maternal ancestor, Pierre Gilbert, was one of the Huguenot founders of New Bordeaux. Blessed with the refined enjoyments of a happy home, with interesting and promising children clustering around his heart, he is content to see divided among others, the honors of public life. Beyond the share which has already been accorded to him, and the meed of public confidence which has attended them, he does not, we believe, cherish one single aspiration.

* As Fiduciary Agent, he has settled up and closed four estates, and still has four others under his administration, besides several minor trusts; which, with his own affairs, it may well be imagined, leave but little of his time unoccupied.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—RAIL-ROAD MATTERS.

WE have on hand quite an accumulation of papers and documents, upon the subject of Southern and Western Rail-roads, which it has been impossible for us to touch, believing that it was due to the whole country that the matters of the late great Rail-road Convention in New-Orleans should be first attended to. Having finished with these, we shall be able next month to run over a good deal of new ground. Meanwhile, we express indebtedness to our friend in Henderson, Rusk Co., Texas, for his paper, which we shall hereafter incorporate; and to another friend in Little Rock, who signs himself "Boston Mountain," and who shall have equal consideration.

2.—STATE FINANCES OF LOUISIANA.

ON the 31st December, 1851, there remained in the Treasury the sum of \$308,886 37, resulting from various funds, as follows: General Fund, \$76,568 03; Mill Tax Fund, \$154,671 54; Poll Tax Fund, \$19,919 68; Internal Improvement Fund, \$51,132 20; Road and Levee Fund, \$6,594 92. Total, \$308,886 37.

The total receipts for 1850 were, \$1,008,175 91, and for 1851, \$836,247 44. The total expenditures for 1850 were, \$951,545, and for 1851, \$852,787 53. The balance of over \$300,000 remaining in the Treasury, arises from the fact, that when Judge McWhorter was elected in 1850, he found the sum of \$268,795 56 to the credit of the department. During the last two years the disbursements in the aggregate have been exceeded by the receipts, so that the balance existing in 1850 has been augmented some forty thousand dollars.

LIABILITIES OF STATE (1ST JAN., 1850) OF LOUISIANA.

Bonds to Union Bank.....	\$2,668,000
" " Consolidated Bank,...	1,376,000
" " Citizens Bank,.....	6,468,000
For Interest on do.,.....	577,888
Second Municipality, N. O.,...	399,364
Third " ".....	30,240
	\$11,519,492

Statements showing the amount of the Annual Receipts and Expenditures, for the years 1830 to 1852, in Louisiana.

Year.	Receipts.	Expenditures.
1830.....	\$507,291 71.....	\$340,056 38
1831.....	503,168 67.....	364,848 40
1832.....	467,353 66.....	379,343 38
1833.....	482,377 99.....	394,659 30
1834.....	582,254 82.....	500,867 15
1835.....	456,099 34.....	396,394 70
1836.....	564,825 36.....	501,530 37
1837.....	832,316 75.....	358,984 91
1838.....	1,047,802 44.....	986,032 32
1839.....	899,604 20.....	814,121 63
1840.....	778,224 24.....	642,000 02
1841.....	758,599 83.....	700,822 78
1842.....	588,716 65.....	501,591 23
1843.....	648,599 64.....	560,962 54
1844.....	972,177 61.....	616,684 98
1845.....	3,662,889 72.....	3,510,818 39
1846.....	1,245,715 94.....	995,813 28
1847.....	1,418,856 63.....	675,092 96
1848.....	1,351,265 17.....	872,702 50
1849.....	628,965 91.....	329,758 99
1850.....	1,016,040 56.....	990,859 39
1851.....	1,161,673 91.....	852,787 54

3.—LOUISIANA PENITENTIARY.

Number confined 1st Oct., 1839, 194; received since, to 31st Dec., 1850, 169—363. Of this number eight have died, nine been pardoned, ninety-seven discharged. Of those in prison, there are two white females, and twelve colored females. The whole number of colored, 74. Convicts received during 1851, 151; present number in Penitentiary, 298, of which 78 are colored. The following shows the profits of the Penitentiary for 1851, \$4,000 of which goes to the state:

Statement of the Profits and Expenditures in the Louisiana Penitentiary, for the year ending the 31st December, 1851.

Profits arising from the Bagging and Rope Factory.....	\$6,825 11
Cotton and Wool.....	31,996 00
Foundry and Finishing Shop..	8,917 60
Shoemakers'.....	404 36
Brick Yard.....	6,194 64
Merchandise Account.....	3,631 12
	\$57,968 83
Expenditures same time.....	\$45,329 16
Profits.....	\$12,639 67

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

4.—MISSISSIPPI PENITENTIARY.

The machinery now in operation is capable of producing \$45,000 worth of manufactured articles per annum, and it is expected that the establishment will eventually pay from fifteen to twenty thousand dollars into the treasury. 4,000 yards of Osnaburghs, 1,000 yards of linseys, and 1,000 lbs. of yarn, are produced per week. The present number of convicts is 78, only nine of whom are natives of Mississippi.

5.—MISSISSIPPI STATE EXPENSES, &c.

The receipts into the Treasury, from the 1st day of January, 1851, to the 11th day of December, 1851, inclusive, were two hundred and twenty-one thousand two hundred dollars and twenty-one cents. The particulars are as follows, viz.:

State Tax for 1850.....	\$184,646 14
" 1849.....	387 35
" 1848.....	5 79
" 1847.....	660 17
Sinking Fund.....	9,206 16
Chickasaw School Fund.....	2,641 84
Executive Contingent Fund.....	604 43
Redemption of Lands.....	5,796 63
Appropriations.....	400 00
Two per cent. Fund.....	2,800 00
Penitentiary.....	8,000 00
Internal Improvement Fund.....	6,051 70

Total Receipts to 11th Dec.,
1851.....\$231,200 21

The whole amount of Disbursements for the same time was \$223,637 15. Among the items we note:

Lunatic Asylum.....	\$45,000
Legislative Dept.....	1,872
Judiciary ".....	74,489
Executive ".....	8,972
Penitentiary.....	22,433
Institution for Blind.....	2,500
University of Miss.....	5,384
State Convention.....	8,397
Vaccine Agency.....	400

6.—THE FISK LIBRARY, NEW-ORLEANS.

Now that the city is consolidated, we have some hopes of seeing carried out the project we some time ago submitted, of incorporating the Fisk Library within the University, and thus making it of public advantage, rather than as at present, a ridiculous libel upon the name. This measure could have been effected several years ago, but for the unreasonable opposition of a few

parties. It is well known that the brother and legatee of Mr. Fisk is greatly in favor of it, which should of itself be a strong commendation. In this manner \$10,000 can be procured for the increase of a library, which already contains five or six thousand volumes. Mr. French, who was the original owner of the library, and through whose influence, to some extent, Mr. Fisk was induced to make a donation of it to the city, remains one of its staunch friends and advocates, and has lately forwarded to the mayor a gratuitous offering of about 140 valuable volumes, contributions from himself and friends. It should shame us to see the efforts now being made in New-York to carry out the liberal bequest of Mr. Astor for a great public library, and then reflect upon our own apathy and indifference.

7.—THE SUGAR INTERESTS.

Some say there is nothing new under the sun—perhaps there is not; but we do not happen to know all, consequently what is old is sometimes new to us. A gentleman has this year planted cane upon a principle which I think is new to the most of us. I will try to give it, together with some remarks. It is this: the canes are cut in pieces of four or five joints, each joint having a good eye. It is then planted in hills, or, to make it more intelligible, the furrow is plowed twice, so as to make it one foot wide. On each side is laid a piece of this cut cane, say nine inches apart, and directly in a line opposite each other, but longitudinally with the furrow. At a space of two feet, or two feet six inches, other two pieces are planted, and so on, throughout the soil. The crop is covered and worked in the ordinary manner. It is expected that a heavier stand and much finer canes will be the result, and consequently more sugar, with far less seed-cane. There is no reason to doubt that it will succeed well; and the plan really carries out the sun and air system to perfection. I am of opinion, had about four ounces of lime, or what is better, bone powder, been worked into each hill, or even if it be applied in April, the result would be surprising. Let me explain what I mean. Bone dust is a four year's manure. It is the food and stimulative of the sugar cane, and I am certain that a crop of canes can be dressed with bone dust, so as to cause it to be as forward, and as near maturity in September, as one cultivated without it would be in November. This latter is of vital importance to Louisiana, as the cane crop is a forced crop. It is an artificial one—not a natural one.

W. F. W.

8.—GRAPE CULTURE IN LOUISIANA.

*St. Mary's Parish, Franklin, La.,
March 3d, 1852.*

MY DEAR SIR:

The culture of the grape is a subject to which much attention has been devoted, and it is generally supposed that the present state of our knowledge in regard to the manner of preparing the ground for the reception of the root is almost perfect. Now, strange as it may seem, it is yet true, that the very first step taken, for the purpose of planting the vine, is incorrect, and in nine cases out of ten, from this first false step result the failures in fruit.

The first injunction given always is, dig a pit some two or three feet deep in the ground; now, this is the first error, and from it come all other imperfections. Far from digging a pit, we should find the highest and driest spot of earth we can, and on it raise a mound. The manner of raising a proper elevation for the vine, I accomplish in the following manner. I inclose about eight feet square in a wall formed of turf or sod raised two feet and a-half high; each layer of sod, as it is superimposed, leaving an abutment of the turf below, of about two inches; the wall, when finished, forming a consecutive series of steps from bottom to top. This pen is filled with bats, gravel, bones, rubbish, &c., &c., and in the middle of it is planted the vine. The rest of the culture is to be carried on according to the most approved style of taste or fancy of the owner. What I wish to direct the attention of the vine-grower to is the fact, that no pit should be dug, as it will form a reservoir for water, and tend to increase the only real impediment to the culture of the grape with us, namely, the wetness of our soil. The same facts are applicable to the culture of the peach, which thrives well here until the trees become large enough for their roots to touch the wet subsoil. This culture would be too expensive to compete with soils naturally cultivated for the peach, but still would be very valuable for those too far removed from such soils to obtain a fruit so liable to speedy decay; and a few trees thus arranged would produce a quantity inconceivably large, and more than sufficient for any family's use.

JAMES SMITH.

9.—IMPROVED FURNACES FOR SUGAR PLANTERS.

Important inventions are often of very simple construction, as for instance, the Safety Lamp of Davy, and the Mariner's Compass. The machine must be adapted to the laws of nature, and it is necessary that the inventor should first understand these laws. We cannot create, but only discover and use principles. The prejudices and ignorance of mechanics and engineers, often in-

terfere with important improvements. The man who can work an engine is not necessarily an engineer. To be this, he must have studied, 1, the combustion of fuel in order to obtain the greatest amount of *heat*—2, the application of heat, in order to secure the greatest amount of *evaporation*—3, the laws of steam in order to obtain the greatest amount of *power*.

The object of these remarks is simply introductory to the notice of a very simple and useful improvement, invented by Mr. F. Armstrong, of New-Orleans, upon the ordinary grate bars in use upon plantations, for which he has received a patent. The claims of the inventor are, that his grate-bars have "jogs" upon their sides, so situated as will allow a poker to pass over them, in order to remove any obstacle which may be in the way of admitting the air to furnish the oxygen. The "jogs" answer the purpose of holding the bars securely in their position, so that the openings are secured uniformly on the whole area of the great surface. In this arrangement regularity as regards distance is preserved, and the solid products of combustion can be removed to keep up a free circulation of air to the fuel.

The inventor has received authority from an intelligent planter to make use of a letter received from him upon the merits of the improved bars, and we take the liberty of copying it. What is said of the importance of using coal on the plantations is worthy of attention, and has been frequently pressed by us.

*Esperance Plantation, St. John the Bapt.,
March 2th, 1852.*

MR. FRANCIS ARMSTRONG:

DEAR SIR.—It gives me much satisfaction to reply to your letter of the 2d inst., in regard to your grate-bars which you set under my kettles and boilers the past season, and to express my sincere opinion that they are much superior to any others which I have used, (and I have various kinds,) particularly for sugar kettles. With them I was enabled to get my crop off with very bad coal, which I am sure I never could have done without them—for the year before I fairly gave up the same coal and finished my crop with wood. To the planter who uses coal in the boiling of cane juice, they are absolutely necessary; and to this fuel many must resort in a few years. They will then find, like many others when driven to change in any thing, that coal can be used successfully, and economically, much more so than wood, un-

less the wood is on high land and within a reasonable distance from the sugar house. They will in a few years have an experience sufficient to remove difficulties which now exist in the application of the fire to the kettles, the form of the kettles of the canal, and indeed of the whole arrangement, which will as certainly yield to time and labor as other difficulties far greater have done in this as well as in other branches of industry.

At the close of another year I may be able to show some of the results of coal in this respect, which, owing to a bad article used last year, I am not now prepared for. In evidence of my undiminished confidence, I inform you that I shall put up another set of kettles, and shall order a boat of Pittsburg coal—of the superiority of which over other coal I need not speak, as it is too well known to all those who have used it to require any puff from me.

Congratulating you upon having received your letters patent for your improved grate-bar,

I remain, very respectfully yours,
J. H. LOUGHBOROUGH.

A few principles and facts applicable to the laws of heat and combustion, as they are explained by writers, will not be out of place here.

To appreciate fully the value of this useful and novel mechanical arrangement when applied to furnaces for evaporating cane juice, or generating steam for propelling vessels, it will not be amiss to make a few prefatory observations on the philosophy of combustion, a subject upon which no little error prevails, notwithstanding its importance in this age of progress in the useful arts.

Combustion is known to be the chemical combination of a *supporter of combustion* with a *combustible body* evolving *heat and light*.

The combustible body in ordinary furnaces is wood or coal, while the supporter is the oxygen contained in the air, without the presence of which no combustion or burning can take place. It is well settled by all writers on combustion, that the *heat evolved* is in direct proportion to the quantity of oxygen which enters into the combination.

As to the evolution of the *light*, many theories have been advanced from time to time, but the problem has not been satisfactorily solved. The views of Professor Thompson, however, are not unworthy of interest. He holds that the *light* we observe in combustion is a constituent of the com-

bustible body and not of the supporter, for the reason that different combustibles in burning give out different colors, whereas the oxygen, or supporter, is always identically the same. He says, the oxygen has two component parts, the *base* and the *caloric*, or heat, and the combustible has also two component parts, the *base* and the *light*. During the combustion, the base of the oxygen unites with the base of the combustible, forming a product, while at the same time the caloric of the oxygen combines with the *light* of the combustible, and the compound forms *flame*.

The quantity of air required to furnish sufficient oxygen to support the combustion of fuel in furnaces, is far greater than supposed by those who are not conversant with this subject. The oxygen contained in the air is only about one-fifth part, so that it requires five times the quantity of air to furnish this oxygen, which is itself in bulk — times greater than that of the ordinary fuel consumed.

This immense consumption of air is exemplified in the blacksmith's forge, where the bellows have to be distended many times in order to supply the very small amount of coal with air sufficient to furnish oxygen proper for combustion, and thus obtain the desired heat.

The importance of supplying the furnace with as much oxygen as necessary to produce effective combustion, is exhibited in a simple manner in the common lamp, by extending the wick too high, for it will be then seen that the lamp burns badly, the imperfect combustion being caused by the want of sufficient oxygen to consume the increased quantity of oil raised in the extended wick by capillary attraction.

It is all-important that the fuel be supplied with the requisite quantity of air. Any deficiency or interruption of this *supporter* will necessarily cause imperfect combustion, and consequently a corresponding loss of heat.

Nature has kindly furnished us with the means of accomplishing great results if we only apply them by proper and suitable mechanical structures. The principles or laws of nature have always been the same; they are not new; it is for human genius to discover and develop, not create them. It is

the *new* application of an existing principle, not the novelty of the principle itself, which inventors claim. This distinction is not always regarded, and no merit is awarded to the poor inventor unless his improvement has produced an entirely new principle.

10.—ASTRONOMICAL PAPERS.

We are indebted to our esteemed friend and early preceptor, Professor Lewis R. Gibbs, of the college of Charleston, for a series of articles, contributed by him to the papers of that city, upon many interesting questions of astronomy, in which he is probably as much a proficient as almost any gentleman in the country. We would republish one or two of the series did space admit; but will, at all events, clip out a table, furnished by him, of the asteroids: those modest little orbs, which ever and anon bless the eyes of astronomers with new discovery, and are increasing in number so fast that it is almost impossible to keep up the reckoning of them. We have added to the list the latest discovered.

The following table gives their names in order of discovery, date of discovery, name and residence of discoverer, and their mean distances from the sun.

Names.	Date.	Discoverer.	Place.	M. dis.
Ceres	'01, Jan 1	Piazzi	Palermo	2766
Pallas	'02, Mar 28	Olbers	Bremen	2772
Juno	'04, Sep 1	Harding	Lilienthal	2671
Vesta	'07, Mar 29	Olbers	Bremen	2361
Astræa	'45, Dec 8	Hencke	Driessen	2576
Hebe	'47, July 1	Hencke	Driessen	2420
Iris	'47, Aug 13	Hind	London	2385
Flora	'47, Oct 18	Hind	London	2202
Metis	'48, Apr 25	Graham	Markree	2336
Hygeia	'49, Apr 12	Gasparis	Naples	3122
Parthenope	'50, May 11	Gasparis	Naples	2440
Clio	'50, Sep 13	Hind	London	2330
Egeria	'50, Nov 2	Gasparis	Naples	—
Irene	'51, May 30	Hind	London	—
Eunomia	'51, Jul 29	Gasparis	Naples	—

11.—HISTORICAL COLLECTIONS OF LOUISIANA.

B. F. French, Esq., a gentleman well known to the citizens of New-Orleans for his liberal literary spirit and zest in the collection of antique documents, illustrating the early history of Louisiana, has published another interesting volume, which constitutes the third in his series of *Louisiana*

Historical Collections. We are indebted to him for a copy, and give, for the information of our readers, its table of contents:

Memoir of Judge Bullard, Pres. Hist. Soc.
Translation of La Harpe's Journal, with notes on the chief personages alluded to.
Translation of Charter to Crozat and Western Company.
Account of the Indian Tribes of Louisiana.
Early Military Fortifications.
Translation of the Black Code.
Translation of Charlevoix, with notes.
Account of the Arkansas, Cherokee, Natchez, &c. Indians.
Massacre of the French by the Natchez.
Early Inhabitants of New-Orleans.
Settlement of the Huguenots in New France.
Journal of Sauvole, first Governor of Louisiana.
Richebourg's Memoir on the Natchez War.

We have previously referred in our pages to the first and second series of papers by Mr. French, and regret to have to add, that his literary and patriotic labors in the matter, though appreciated by scholars all over the nation, have not been rewarded in our own state with any proper encouragement. Very few, if any, members even of the Historical Society, purchased the second volume, though it was published with direct reference to them, and contained a list of their names, etc. Surely the citizens of Louisiana will not suffer a gentleman thus to tax his own private resources in a matter which is of such wide and deep public concern.

In a few months, Mr. French will publish the *fourth* series of papers, which will include the precious, and but lately brought to light, papers of Marquette, the *discoverer of the Mississippi*; and which have never before appeared in print. Among them is the chart of the Mississippi, made in 1673—a copy of which we have received, and would gladly incorporate did space admit. We can only now extract from the letter of Mr. French, in which he informs us of his intentions, and express the hope that every Louisianian will encourage, by his purse, the worthy undertaking of rescuing the buried and almost lost memorials of our past history. The legislature of the state should even make a handsome appropriation in aid. Mr. French intimates that he may appropriate the proceeds of the fourth vol-

ume to the erection of a monument to Marquette and Jolliet.

DEAR SIR: Your esteemed favor reached me yesterday. At the same moment, I received a package from Canada, containing the original papers and *veritable* journal of Father Marquette, the discoverer of the mighty Mississippi.

I cannot describe to you the thrill of delight that ran through me as I fingered the pages of these mysterious papers—the greatest literary discovery of the age.

I had to drop your kind letter. I could not think of anything but the *old* papers, and the old stained *map* drawn by Marquette, which accompanied them.

I opened it—I turned it over and over—I held it up to the light of the sun, so that it should shine upon it once more. I examined critically the countless stains upon it. I looked at it again and again to see if I could discover the blood of Indian scalps, or of the good missionaries, staining its surface. I thought I could see where the hand of the good father had rested on it, as he traced the course of the river, from degree to degree, and where he marked the Indian villages.

I fancied I could see the stopping-places where he bivouacked at night, (under a cloud of mosquitoes, no doubt,) on the banks of that stream, which nowhere bears his name, but of which he was the first daring explorer.

I followed him in his bark canoes until he reached the mouth of the Arkansas, when he landed amidst the savage shouts, and the military display of a long rank and file of savage chieftains, escorting him and his companions, with their rude music, to their village. I then traced him back to the snows of Canada; and to the shores of that lake, where he finally yielded up his pious spirit into the hands of his Creator, while invoking his holy name.

"In the darkling wood,
Amidst the cool and silence, he knelt,
And offered to the Mightiest, solemn thanks
And supplications."

I inclose you *fac similes* of the identical map and papers, (the map is a sketch by me *in part only*), so that you may assert the truth of the discovery without fear of contradiction.

You will observe that Marquette has named the Mississippi the river *de la Conception*, which is something new, and affords us the strongest proof of the genuineness of the map. *But why did he thus name it?* Because it was the holy day (le jour de l'immaculee Conception du la vierge), on which he sat out to peril his life, and his companions, in this great discovery. But we must not lose sight of M. Jolliet, his brave and intelligent companion in this exploration, who is entitled to divide the honor with him. I am truly yours,

BENJ. F. FRENCH.

J. D. B. De Bow, Esq.

12.—BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LOUISIANA.

Although this office, for some time held by the Editor of the Review, has at his suggestion been abolished by the Legislature, the full report which was promised will still appear, it is hoped, sometime during next summer or fall. Communications addressed to the Bureau previously to that time, will be gladly received, and their contents incorporated, with the proper acknowledgments.

It will be remembered that a certain committee of the House of Representatives thought proper to censure the office for not having accomplished its mission; but as this committee prepared immediately after a supplementary report, correcting the errors into which in a great many particulars they had fallen, and making the amende to the Bureau for the most flagrant injustice done to it, no public notice was taken of the matter. Citizens of Louisiana will not deny us the credit of having faithfully served the *industrial* interest of the state, and it would be very hard for any man or committee to affect this position.

Though the office has been abolished, it will be only until a better plan can be submitted for carrying out the purposes designed, and in which Louisiana has taken the lead of most of the other states. Such a plan will in due time be submitted.

13.—FREE BANKING.

An able paper upon this subject, by a merchant of New-Orleans, is, we regret to state, unavoidably left out of this number, though we made every effort to insert it. Next month it will appear. Several other papers on different subjects are also omitted for the same reason.

14.—THE FUTURE OF NEW-ORLEANS.

Everything may now be said to be bright. All the great measures of reform which have been recommended have been carried out. We have a new government, which embraces all of the municipalities and Lafayette into *one compact and powerful whole*, capable of meeting the exigencies of the times, and advancing us to that state which God and nature intended, and which man only could have prevented. We have removed

the tax upon capital, and in the restoration of the Citizens Bank given the proper relief to the mercantile interests. The power is given to the people to tax themselves for rail-road purposes, and what is higher than all and above all, there is to be a new constitution of the state, which shall untie the hands of the people and leave them to work out their own salvation. Who shall say that the Fates are not propitious?

14.—IMPORTANT TO SUBSCRIBERS.

NOTICE.—Subscribers who are not binding their sets, and who will send us any of the numbers from January to July, 1847, or February, 1848, or August, 1849, will have their accounts credited with the same at 50 cents each on a new year. We want these very badly for completing sets, and will also exchange 1852 for the numbers of 1846. *Send by mail.* In exchange for January, February, May or June, 1851, any future numbers will be given.

We will supply all other numbers except those indicated on moderate terms, to those who may desire to complete their sets; or if they send the sets to us we will have them bound handsomely at actual cost. This course is recommended to subscribers.

We have still a very few sets, for which orders are solicited—old series 11 vols.; new series 4 vols.—neatly bound. Acceptances ca factors in southern cities, payable in the fall, received as cash.

A special circular will be sent to all subscribers who are in arrears, and they are earnestly requested to remit by first mail. If any have not received their numbers regularly, only give us notice, and we will supply the deficient ones. No one need complain on this score. A note through the post-office will always rectify any mistakes, even though they are in most instances chargeable to irregularities of the mail.

15.—OUR ADVERTISEMENTS.

In addition to the articles mentioned in the card of Messrs. Guinness & Hill, in our advertising columns, we would mention the following, which, through the courtesy of these gentlemen, we were permitted fully to inspect in their magnificent establishment upon Camp-street. It is a perfect crystal palace in its way:

Piano Fortes, Guns, Paintings, Tables, Liquor Cases, Baskets, Elegant Chairs, Papier Mache Goods.

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